The JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION

JANUARY
1943

VOLUME XIV
NUMBER 1

CONTENTS

IN DEFENSE OF EXTENSION SERVICE — 1
DAVID B. PUGH AND ROY E. MORGAN

The Arts and Science Extension of Pennsylvania State College extended its services in the summer of 1941 to meet the local demands for engineering training for the defense program. Mr. Pugh is Director of Arts and Science Extension, and Supervisor of Undergraduate Centers, while Mr. Morgan is the Administrative Assistant in the department and Assistant Professor of English.

SLAVONIC STUDIES IN AMERICA — MAURICE W. ROSENBAUM — 9

The author of this article hopes to see Slavonic studies, especially Russian, established on a par with other modern foreign languages in the curriculums of American high schools, colleges, and universities. Mr. Rosenbaum is a graduate student in New York University.

THE COLLEGE IN A CHANGING WORLD — GLEN WAKEHAM — 15

Professor Wakeham, of the Chemistry Department, University of Colorado, foresees the enormous problems of postwar reconstruction and wonders whether institutions of higher education will meet the times adequately.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF PHILOSOPHY — MAX BLACK — 19

The Editorial Staff of the Journal is glad to present this article by Mr. Black of the University of Illinois. The manuscript was sent to the Journal by the Secretary of the Western Division of the American Philosophical Association, saying that the annual meeting of the Division unanimously voted that this paper be presented for publication. The Editorial Staff of the Journal is proud to comply with this unanimous request.

A PERHAPS TOO OPEN LETTER — L. H. STIMMEL — 25

Mr. Stimmel, Assistant Professor of English in Colorado State College of Agricultural and Mechanic Arts, in this open letter to educationists tries to realize for them Robert Burns' wish.

THE LIBRARY CATALOGER HAS A BOOK — ELLEN JACKSON — 29

In case some of our readers are like Mr. Brown, we are including Miss Jackson's simplified interpretation of the symbols and abbreviations on catalog cards. Miss Jackson is a member of the library staff of Oklahoma State Agricultural and Mechanical College.

[Continued on the Next Page]

CONTENTS (*Continued*)

CASE-STUDY TECHNIQUES — ESTHER ALLEN GAW — 37

The Dean of Women, Ohio State University, here summarizes the essential items in usable case records and sets up standards to be met.

WITH THE TECHNICIANS — 41

"The 'Unsupervised Quiz-Period,'" reported by Glen Wakeham, University of Colorado; "Liberal-Arts Students Advised to Withdraw," reported by Paul L. Dressel, Michigan State College; "Commission on Postwar Training."

THE REPORTER — 47

Courses in Russian at Kentucky, women students in engineering courses at Penn State, extension courses at Cornell, article on the conscientious objector, bulletin by Nursing Information Bureau, film library at Ball State Teachers College, Latin-American center established at Denver, oriental languages at California, health-film resources surveyed, entrance requirements at Harvard changed, major research projects at Antioch, enrollments of institutions of higher education, survey of war industrial-training program at Penn State, Wayne in wartime, new loan funds at Penn State, treasurer's report of Harvard, glider course at Wisconsin, New Hampshire participation in program of Army Institute, English universities during wartime, Conference on College Women and War held at Northwestern, report of Cooper Union.

EDITORIAL COMMENTS — 54

REVIEWS — 55

"Public Administration and the Library," by Arnold Miles and Lowell Martin; "Essays on Catholic Education in the United States," edited by Roy J. Deferrari; "Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools," by E. I. F. Williams.

IN THE LAY MAGAZINES — v

THE JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION is published monthly, except during July, August, and September, by the Ohio State University; 35 cents per copy, $3.00 a year (Canadian and foreign subscriptions $3.50). The address of the editorial and business office is Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Entered as second-class matter October 12, 1939, at the Post Office, Columbus, Ohio, under the Act of March 3, 1879.

IT MAY be the "holiday season"—but war needs the wires that you used to use for Christmas calls.

Long Distance lines are loaded with urgent messages. Extra lines can't be added because copper and other materials are needed for the war.

So—this Christmas please don't make any Long Distance calls to war-busy centers unless they're vital.

WAR CALLS COME FIRST
BELL TELEPHONE SYSTEM

The Journal of Higher Education JANUARY, 1943

In Defense of Extension Service

By DAVID B. PUGH AND ROY E. MORGAN

A Case History

FROM as early as 1892, when Dr. William Rainey Harper drew up his unique and comprehensive plan of community service for the newly founded University of Chicago, academic criticism and skepticism have greeted the general idea of university extension. Even now, fifty years later, the same attitude still prevails. Unnecessary almost is it to point out that extension programs are, by and large, common game among college and university faculties. Whenever the professorial Nimrod has the urge to take a pot shot in education, off-campus instruction seems to provide a ready and convenient target with the result that it is always open season on extension work. Among the bull's-eyes reportedly scored in the attack against extension have been lack of standards, weakness of staff, inferior student groups, inadequate control of supervision, poor quality of instruction, and lack of facilities. To counteract this bombardment and correct some of the misconceptions concerning extension teaching, the present case history is placed on the record.

During the summer of 1941, the Pennsylvania State College through its Extension Services conducted what was probably the largest full-time extension program ever operated. As part of the Engineering Defense Training (EDT) program sponsored by the United States Office of Education, the College offered a ten-weeks course in Introductory Engineering Subjects (IES) for approximately twenty-five hundred qualified high-school graduates not planning to enter college in the fall. These students went to class five days a week at 95 centers throughout the state

and came under the supervision of more than 450 staff members. Figure 1 graphically illustrates the way the centers were dotted about the Keystone State. Certainly no one connected with the summer experiment will claim that it was perfection, but it assuredly indicates the possibilities of a widespread extension program.

Of the 2,855 students who originally registered for the course, 2,423 reported at the various centers for the opening class session. About 95 per cent of these registrants were high-school graduates of June, 1941. Classes were organized in units running from a minimum of 10 to a maximum of 25. A total of 149 classes was set up with an average of 16.3 students per class. The largest center at Scranton had 154 students enrolled in eight classes; naturally, the smallest centers had but one class with a minimum of students. The Scranton center was the only one with as many as eight units, although there were two centers with five and nine centers with three units each. Of the remainder 21 had two units and the other 62 had one.

BECAUSE of the number of instructors needed, as well as the short period of time provided for recruiting, securing a faculty for this program was really a sizable job. Before the summer was over, more than five hundred individuals had been hired for instructional, supervisory, and administrative duties. The final tabulation revealed that a total of 410 instructors had been employed and that an additional 47 had been required for supervision and other general duties. These figures are exclusive of administrative heads, secretaries, field staff, and various other administrative employees. This large group of employees had to be secured in a little more than eight-weeks time; actually plans for the program were not even initiated until early April, and the first centers opened on June 9.

After the faculty was secured, there was then the problem of placing them in the selected locations covering approximately 32,500 square miles of

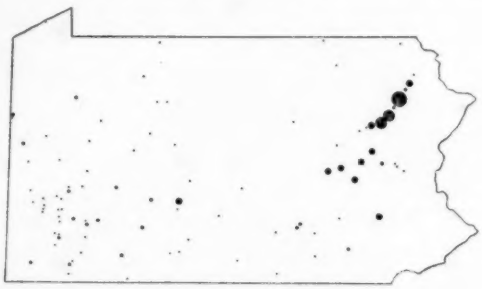

Fig. 1. Showing the Distribution of IES Cent ers in Pennsylvania, Summer, 1941. The size of the dot indicates the relative size of the Center. Note the heavy concentration of enrollment in the depression-hit anthracite region in the northeastern part of the state.

the commonwealth. Quite a problem that was, too, as one of the writers can testify, since it was his task to co-ordinate instruction and supervision on the program. Further complicating this situation was the fact that certain instructors taught at two, and in even a few instances, three different centers. This naturally required the co-ordination of schedules in centers so affected. That was rendered all the more difficult in Pennsylvania in the summer of 1941 inasmuch as some communities were operating on standard time and others

on daylight-saving. It was this complication which resulted in the scheduling of a drafting instructor for a class in Lansford at 9 o'clock E.S.T. and then in East Mauch Chunk, some ten miles distant, at 10 o'clock E.D.S.T. No wonder the poor fellow had difficulty maintaining his schedule until the problem was brought to the scheduling officer's attention.

The introductory-engineering program included fundamental training in chemistry, physics, engineering drafting, mathematics, and mechanics—basic courses in the field of engineering. Weekly engineering orientation lectures were also given, and supervised study was a regularly scheduled part of the program. Specifically, the work included a portion of that technical training given to a first-year engineering student. All students took the same subjects, and all the subjects were treated entirely from an engineering viewpoint. Forty hours a week were spent in the classroom, in recitation, laboratory, or study. Following is an outline of the course program:

1. Chemistry—50 hours—5 hours per week, 2 one-hour recitations and 1 three-hour laboratory period
2. Drafting—50 hours—5 hours per week, 1 three-hour and 1 two-hour period
3. Engineering Orientation—10 hours—1 hour per week
4. Mathematics—50 hours—10 hours per week for the first 5 weeks, 5 one-hour recitations in algebra and 5 one-hour recitations in trigonometry
5. Mechanics—40 hours—8 hours per week for the last 5 weeks, 8 one-hour recitations
6. Physics—80 hours—8 hours per week, 4 one-hour recitations and 2 two-hour laboratory periods
7. Supervised Study—120 hours—11 hours per week for the first 5 weeks and 13 hours per week for the last 5 weeks

To qualify applicants had to be graduates of a four-year high-school program with a minimum of two years of mathematics, including algebra and geometry, and one year of science. Each applicant was recommended by his high-school principal and personally interviewed by a representative of the College. Many of the students had had more than two years of mathematics; some having had as many as four years. It was necessary in a few instances, because of high-school curriculums, to dismiss the geometry requirement and attempt to add special classes in that subject to the already crowded ten-weeks program; fortunately, those instances were few. Either physics or chemistry had been taken by a majority of the group, and a rather considerable number had taken both sciences. Shortly after the opening of the summer session standardized aptitude tests were given to each student; the results showed that the group selected was as a whole slightly higher than the general run of college students. In mechanical ability, another significant factor, the group was just below the median for engineering-school Freshmen.

Simply stated, the purpose of the program of introductory engineering subjects was to provide high-school graduates with elementary engineering training so that they would be prepared to aid in American defense production. A prior survey by the field-service staff of the College

had revealed the need for semi-technically trained personnel to fit into Pennsylvania's industrial machine. Actually it was this survey which dictated the setting up of the program. Completion of the summer work, it was assumed, would help equip the youth for:

1. Positions in industry, civil service, ordnance, and other departments of the Federal Government, which were urgently in need of technically trained personnel, including inspectors, designers, draftsmen, and other semi-technical employees.
2. Further advanced training in other programs of Engineering Defense Training, since the summer program qualified the student to continue later in more specialized engineering, science, and management courses, such as Operations Inspection, Tool Design, Production Engineering, Testing, Drafting, Metallurgy, Fuel Technology, and others now being offered in the ESMDT (Engineering Science and Management Defense Training) evening program.
3. More rapid advancement after employment.

That these ends were met to a surprisingly considerable degree is attested to in the placement officer's report on the job status of students who completed the ten-weeks program. According to the records, 1,164 of the 1,945 students who completed the summer course had found employment before December 31. Only 11 per cent of those who were eighteen years of age or over were still unemployed. Personal investigation of a random sampling of this group indicated that many of these youth continue to be unemployed because of the family's desire not to have the youth leave his home community for another where defense jobs are available. Students who took the introductory engineering subjects are now employed as inspectors, draftsmen, electricians, testers, machinists, laboratory technicians, and in many other capacities requiring some degree of technical training. Of those employed 15 per cent are working for aircraft corporations; Glenn R. Martin and Company alone hired 122, of whom 82 are inspectors.[1]

NOW back to the actual administration of the program. For years the Pennsylvania State College has had an organized field-service staff, whose duty it was in the summer of 1941 to handle all administrative and nonacademic details of the program. It was the task of the District Representatives, who head this branch of the organization in the six different areas within the state, to locate centers of instruction, to rent space and other facilities, secure secretarial and administrative help, publicize the program, and route supplies and equipment. An administrative head was selected to represent the College at each center of instruction. Usually a local educator, the administrative head, served as a contact between the College and the community.

All the introductory-engineering centers opened within two weeks from June 9 to June 23. Opening dates were spotted throughout the state, the largest number of centers

[1]Other companies that hired a large number of students were Western Electric, Carnegie-Illinois Steel, Bendix Aviation, National Tube, General Electric, Curtiss-Wright, and Bethlehem Steel.

opening on any one day being 19 with 3 the smallest number being scheduled. On a typical day, for example, centers opened at Kane in the northwestern part of the state; Butler, Clairton, and McKeesport in the southwest; Ebensburg, Middletown, and Williamsport in the central area; Bloomsburg and Wilkes-Barre in the northeast.

For all these centers, of course, separate faculties had to be secured. How was that done? At first this problem promised to be a real barrier to the successful organization of the program. It was quickly realized that it would be impossible to secure all of the needed instructional force within the bounds of Pennsylvania; therefore, letters were written to the presidents of institutions in the surrounding states. In addition, information concerning the program went to department heads all over the country by correspondence from key supervisors and other College staff members interested in the IES program. Shortly the replies began coming in; heartening replies they were, too, indicating that educators in general were interested in and responding to the call. Looking back on those weeks now, we wonder how it was all done. The answer is partly found in the ready replies and the co-operative spirit shown not only by the staff of the Pennsylvania State College but also by college and university personnel from Arkansas to West Virginia, alphabetically as well as geographically.

The problem of selecting instructors in turn had as its corollary that of orienting those so chosen to the task ahead of them. Each teacher in the program was asked to spend one day in conference at the College before tackling the job of instruction at the class centers. Orientation meetings were held daily for groups ranging from twenty to fifty over a two-weeks period approximately coinciding with that of the centers' opening dates. The purpose of these sessions was twofold: first, to acquaint the prospective staff members with the purpose of the program; and second, to familiarize them with the course syllabi and materials. In general, the administrative officers in charge of the program discussed its general aims and objectives, while the departmental key supervisors considered the individual subject-matter outlines in separate group conferences. The Physics Department even went so far as to set up a model laboratory to permit each of the instructors to examine the suggested experiments.

A QUESTION likely to arise in many minds is what was the character of the faculties secured? Frankly, it was a most amazing group, considering that in the case of physics, mathematics, and mechanics these were probably the largest departmental staffs ever engaged to teach for one college or university. A cursory analysis of each of the departments involved may serve to give a picture of the faculty.

Largest of all the staffs on the program was that of the Physics Department, one which has been thoroughly analyzed by Marsh W. White, physics supervisor for the College, and C. J. Lapp of the Uni-

versity of Iowa, supervisor of physics research for the IES course.[2] Actually there were 127 members of the teaching, research, and supervisory staff in physics recruited from 91 institutions in 29 states and the District of Columbia. Only seven of the group were high-school or preparatory-school teachers, the other 95 per cent coming from college faculties ranged from full professors to graduate assistants and teaching fellows. No less than 81 physics staff members had Doctors' degrees, 37 the Masters', and only 9 the Bachelors' as their highest degrees. Teaching experience in the college field by the 105 college teachers engaged averaged 11.93 years; they also had an average of .89 years high-school teaching experience. Their average age was 36 years, although the modal age group was from 24.5 to 29.5 years.

Mathematics and mechanics were the next two largest departments, the former slightly shading the latter with a total of 108 on its instructional and supervisory staff to 105 in the mechanics group. The Mathematics Department had the distinction of having the largest number of women instructors employed, 10 out of the 16 in the entire program. About 87 per cent of this staff were junior-college, senior-college, university, or teachers'-college instructors; more than half of them held the doctorate degree. The mechanics staff was second only to physics in the number of states from which the staff members came, in this instance 22. They came from as far west as Arkansas, Colorado, and Montana, and as far south as Florida and Louisiana.

Greatest number of department heads were found teaching chemistry, since the 77 instructors and supervisors in this field included 22 department heads. In that group, too, was the highest percentage of doctors, approximately 70; only 23 not having earned that degree. Represented among the institutions where the individuals had permanent positions were 43 colleges and universities, 8 junior colleges, 5 teachers' colleges, and 6 public high schools.

There were 81 members of the teaching and supervisory staff in drafting, including the greatest number of high-school teachers found in any one of the five subject-matter departments. This is readily accounted for, however, since previous extension experience had indicated that good high-school teachers do an excellent job in first-year drafting.

Lecturers for the engineering orientation course were all selected from the School of Engineering faculty of the College. The purpose of this part of the program, which had been developed by Harry P. Hammond, dean of the School, and Robert A. Hussey, supervisor in charge, was to give students entering an intensive course in engineering subjects a broad conception of what engineering entails and what its industrial occupational outlets are. The lecture series covered the technical as well as the functional, economic, and social aspects of the profession, including discussions of how industry is organized, the various engineering fields, and their functions.

[2] Lapp, Claude Jerome. "Physics Teachers Rating in the Summer Engineering Defense Training Program," *American Journal of Physics*, X (June, 1942), pp. 154–57.

In addition to the regular classroom teachers, special-study supervisors were assigned to the large centers for the expressed purpose of handling the study periods scattered throughout the eight-hour day. Over half of this small group of 24 were secondary-school teachers definitely selected because of the interest which, in general, high schools pay to the particular educational method introduced.

The following table offers summaries regarding the 457 members of the summer faculty, indicating their present professional positions, highest degrees, and permanent positions by states:

	Number
Present professional positions—	
High school	80
Preparatory school	5
College teachers—	
a. Graduate assistants	30
b. Instructors	141
c. Assistant professors	68
d. Associate professors	43
e. Professors (including 42 department heads)	85
Architects, engineers, etc.	5
Highest Degrees—	
Bachelors'	95
Masters'	148
Doctors'	182
Professional	22
Miscellaneous	10
Permanent positions by states—	
Florida, Maine, Minnesota, Montana, Oklahoma, Texas, Canada	1
Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Kansas, Kentucky, Nebraska, North Dakota, Rhode Island	2
Louisiana, Missouri, South Carolina	3
Delaware, Massachusetts	4
New Jersey, District of Columbia	5
Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Tennessee	6
Virginia, West Virginia	8
Maryland, North Carolina	9
Michigan	11
New York	20
Ohio	22
Pennsylvania	286

These figures reveal that a predominant majority of the staff held permanent positions on college faculties; as a matter of fact, approximately 80 per cent were college teachers, and no less than 45 individuals out of the group were department heads. Only a scant 18 per cent of the staff, counting in even the study supervisors, were from high-school or preparatory-school faculties. Practically 40 per cent, a surprisingly large percentage of the faculty as a whole, held Doctors' degrees, representing almost 50 of the largest institutions in the country. The widespread recruitment of the staff is attested to by the simple fact that they came from 32 states, the District of Columbia, and Canada. About three-quarters came from Pennsylvania and the adjoining states of Ohio, New York, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, New Jersey, and Delaware.

THE work of this large staff, although carried on in nearly a hundred different spots, had to be controlled and supervised from the campus. To provide uniformity in course content at every center, course syllabi were written by resident departments of the College, and all instructors were requested to teach from the same outline. Then to further aid in co-ordinating the teaching, all classes were visited regularly about every other week by supervisors traveling from the campus. Actual observation of teaching and laboratory methods was one of the principal purposes of supervision, providing as it did a ready opportunity to rectify inept or inefficient methods or equally to discover especially good teaching situations and procedures.

Co-ordination and supervision of the teaching schedule not only assured uniform control and standards but also made possible the use of visual aids, demonstrations, and numerous teaching helps. For both chemistry and physics, motion-picture films were scheduled on a regular circuit which kept a staff of four operators busily commuting from center to center on a pre-arranged schedule. These visual aids were made a more integral part of the program by supplying each teacher with a description of the films in advance of their showing, and also through the distribution of mimeographed aids to each student following the showing. Mobile demonstration laboratories, designated as "autolabs" by the publicity writers, likewise were developed for use in these classes in order to implement the actual individual experiment work done by the students. These mobile units proved to be an interesting and significant innovation in extension teaching.

Organization and conduct of this IES program may be far more significant than at first appears, especially if university-extension services are to be utilized to the full in any well-developed adult-education movement. Certainly three clear-cut lessons have been learned by the Pennsylvania State College by virtue of the summer experiment. First of all, it is rather evident that extension courses can be set up under resident standards, if that is the requirement demanded by the academic critics of extension. Whether or not this is a desirable end is the subject for another paper, not this one. Over these courses uniform control, supervision, and guidance can be exercised and in such fashion as to be to the advantage of both the classroom teacher and the sponsoring institution. Finally, outstanding faculties can be secured for extension teaching and outstanding results can be anticipated.

These three considerations may well be kept in mind by college and university administrators. Assuredly a mass movement in adult education may not be too much to anticipate when the present crisis is past. Commissioner John W. Studebaker, of the Office of Education, somewhat freely predicts that it is to be "the next great move in education." That the colleges and universities will be asked to participate largely in the movement, if and when it does come, is already forecast. Considering the effect of the next ten years on education in a University of Chicago Round Table broadcast some time ago, the participants—Edward C. Elliott, president of Purdue University, Robert M. Hutchins, president of the University of Chicago, and Commissioner Studebaker—advanced as one of the four main issues in this discussion the increasing responsibilities of colleges and universities in adult education. Since any such mass program will depend largely on extension, that simply means these divisions must be alert to any increased responsibilities likely to devolve on them.

Slavonic Studies in America

By MAURICE W. ROSENBAUM

Trends and Practices in the Study of Slavonic Languages and Literatures in American Universities

THIS essay grew out of an attempt to discover the status of Slavonic studies in America, especially Russian. Curiously enough, although by far the better facilities for Slavonic study are available in the United States, the best periodical material on the subject is to be found in British publications—*The Slavonic and East European Review* and *The London Times Educational Supplement.*

There are many reasons why Russian should be taught. Approximately one hundred and eighty million people speak Russian in Europe and Asia, while but eighty million use German and sixty million French, the two foremost foreign languages taught in the secondary schools and colleges and universities in America. There can be little question that Russia has a tremendous economic future. The country is developing rapidly. It has grown increasingly important in international affairs, and now bids fair to be the savior of democracy by force of arms—a rather curious fate for the dictatorship of the "proletariat." It has made many valuable contributions in learning and culture.

Here is what a British contemporary thought about it as recently as June, 1939, when Russia's fateful rôle as England's partner was not yet a dream:

> . . . Russian has far more career value than most people realize. Useful for journalist and librarian, it is invaluable in commerce. Industry has given it just place. It is recognized in examinations for the public service. But in the teaching profession Russian has little value and may even prove a hindrance in getting a post. Thus, the crux of the problem is to be found in the attitude of the schools themselves and its effect both on the demand for teachers and the supply of students.[1]

Russian is not even an optional second language. It should certainly be at least that. There is no valid reason why it should not be granted equal rights with German, French, and Spanish. Its value as a tool in research in the social and natural sciences is undisputed; it has led the field in certain aspects of biology and psychology. It is true that Russian is recognized as a medium for the study of other subjects and the pursuit of other interests, but this type of work deserves much further extension. With the recent and pending

[1] *London Times Educational Supplement,* (June 24, 1939), p. 251.

changes in the political relations of Russia, England, and America, pressure in the direction of teaching Russian may come from parents.[2]

One of the chief difficulties of present methods of instruction rests on the fact that teachers of Russian are called upon to lecture outside the scope of an ordinary modern foreign-language department. They are forced to lecture in "regional studies," encroaching on the fields of history, economics, geography, and even sociology, besides the more usual aspects of language and literature.

PRACTICAL language instruction has had a checkered career in America. Russian has been offered at Harvard without interruption since 1896; at California University, under Noyes, since 1907; at Michigan, since 1908; at Columbia, since 1914 under Prince, Coleman, and Manning; at Chicago, under Samuel N. Harper since 1917. At Yale, however, where courses were offered for twenty uninterrupted years, they were suddenly dropped in the early twenties, at the very moment when interest in things Russian was almost a fad. At Dartmouth, Isabel Hapgood once taught Russian to large classes; later her classes dwindled to none. Now Dartmouth offers no Russian. It has been even worse with Polish.[3]

In an interview with Clarence A. Manning, chairman of the Department of East European Languages at Columbia University, the writer learned that Slavonic studies were being seriously undertaken in four universities: Harvard and Columbia in the East, and the University of California at Berkeley and Stanford in the West. However, when the actual curriculums of these universities were studied, it became apparent that California was far ahead of Columbia and Harvard.

Mr. Manning scored the situation which exists at Chicago, where there are one and one-half million Poles and not a single course in Polish; a half-million Czechs and no course in the Czech language. He suggested that one probable cause was the low-culture group which composed these language belts in Chicago. It was notable, he added, that studies in Russian were carried on by the fairly small group of the so-called "intelligentsia."

Admittedly, the first World War fertilized the study of Slavonic culture in American colleges and universities. According to Mr. Coleman, it did this in three ways: The war itself, and its aftermath in the Relief Administration, was a vortex. American youth was brought into contact with the Slav world. The war made it imperative for many American scholars whose interests were primarily educational theory, the drama, diplomacy, or economics, to carry their studies into the hitherto unexplored Slavonic field. Once drawn into that field, many remained, fascinated alike by its novelty and its importance.[4]

The first World War was also responsible for awakening national pride in the immigrant groups residing in America. This upsurge of interest

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 252.

[3] Coleman, A. P. "Slavonic Studies in the U.S.A.," *Slavonic and East European Review*, XVII (January, 1939), pp. 382–83.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 372.

is directly seen in the progress made in Polish studies at the University of Wisconsin. Doubtless, the fact that Notre Dame established work in Polish in 1936 is also traceable to the same cause, unless it be that acute need for communication among its football stars and their classmates and coach is the real reason.

But then Slavonic studies in America are full of surprises. The noted professor George R. Noyes of California, for example, came to Slavonic work from the English Department of Harvard, where he specialized in John Dryden. Having studied two years in Russia, he went as far from his Alma Mater as it was possible to go in the United States, and founded not an English, but a Slavic Department at the University of California in Berkeley. And a good thing, too, since it is the foremost center of Slavic studies in America.

A STUDY in the *Slavonic Review* comments on the evolution of a new type of course "that cannot be entirely ignored, whatever one's reaction to it." It can best be summarized under the heading of comparative literature, and it generally combines several other Slavic languages and literatures with the Russian. Very often no knowledge of any Slavic language is required.[5] It is most illuminating to note the growth in popularity of such non-language courses as seen in the offerings which Columbia University announced for 1941–42.

[5]Andrews, A. I. "University Courses Given in the United States of America on Slavic and Other Eastern European . . . Literatures," *Slavonic and East European Review*, IX (March, 1931), pp. iii–xvi.

Although in some academic circles such courses in comparative literature are viewed with disapproval as tending to sciolism and general ignorance of language fundamentals, the writer feels that they fill a basic need in introducing the student to the literature and social background of a foreign tongue through the familiar medium of one's own language. Indeed, even a cursory glance at some of the offerings of Columbia University for this academic year makes manifest the yeoman service that this institution is rendering to the propagation of Slavic culture in America. Here are two of the courses which show the emphasis on literary, historic, and cultural backgrounds rather than on linguistic aspects alone:

Russian 9–10: The Russian Novelists. Study is devoted chiefly to the selected works of Gogol, Turgenev, Tolstoy, Dostoevsky, Chekhov and Gorky with special emphasis on their artistic methods, ideas, and their influence on Russia and Russian thought. *Open to students *not* familiar with Russian.

Russian 103–104: Readings in Russian Texts. Introduction to the development of Russian Language and Literature through the reading of texts. Special attention given to Russian folk poetry and to the relation between literature and other cultural developments of the Russian people. *No knowledge of Russian required.

The same study contains three tables which present some comparative statistics and geographic distribution of Slavonics in America. In the following table is seen the relative number of Slavic courses in our universities in 1930 as compared with the

number in 1927:

Title of Course	Number in 1930	Number in 1927
Russian language and literature	64	50
Russian history	43	35
Comparative literature	4	..
Polish language and literature	10	18
Polish history	..	..
Czech and Slovak language and literature	40	16

It is curious to note the appearance of the course in comparative literature in the Slavonic orbit. There were no courses in comparative literature given in 1927; four have appeared by 1930; the Columbia University bulletin alone lists 13 for the academic year 1941–42. A second interesting feature in this table is the drop in Polish and the absence of Polish history.

Tables I and II do not match exactly for the excellent reason that the facts included are not quite identical. It is clear that geographically the center of gravity is still east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio River. It is equally clear that California is particularly strong in Slavonic studies. One heartening fact is seen in the unfailing presence of courses in Russian history. Every region is represented, even the most backward eight states comprising the Rocky Mountain section. If it is fair to suppose, and it seems logical, that interest in Russian matters will be stimulated by courses in Russian history, then it is not such a far cry to total representation in the language and literature as well.

ALTHOUGH the most serious impetus to Slavonic studies here was, apparently, President Roosevelt's recognition of Soviet Russia in 1934, there were some attempts previous to that time to bring American students into closer relations with the Slav world and culture. The Bureau of University Travel announced in 1933 what they pleased to call "The First Russian Seminar," which would take a group of American students to visit the Soviet Union under the guidance of specialists. The plan was to spend one month, July, there on a nonprofit basis under the direction of the Bureau at Newton, Massachusetts.[6]

In the summer of 1934 a new and most promising phase of Slavonic studies in American universities had its inception. A Russian language section was opened at the Harvard Summer School. The reason was that since the American recognition of Russia, both the need of a representative body of students equipped with Russian and the absence of facilities for getting such equipment had become suddenly apparent, and "it is to fill this need that the school is organized."

The intensive course in Russian at Harvard was to be sponsored by the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations

> with a view of increasing the number of American scholars in social and natural science competent to handle the wealth of research material constantly appearing in Russian, and able to follow developments in the USSR and the Far East directly from Russian sources.[7]

The course was to comprise two sections (beginners and initiates) of

[6] "The First Russian Seminar," *School and Society*, XXXVII (May 13, 1933), p. 610.

[7] "Russian Language Section of the Harvard Summer School," *News Bulletin* (Institute of International Education), IX (March, 1934), p. 11.

thirty students, each of whom proposed to use the language in some professional field in which he was already competent. There would be four hours of class five days a week devoted to conversation, phonograph records, and sound films. There would be an advisory committee of many celebrities including George R. Noyes, John Dynely Prince, Clarence A. Manning.

The success of this venture may be judged from a report four years later. To begin with, this intensive Slavonic school was held at Harvard in the summer of 1934, at Columbia in the summer of 1935, and at the University of California in the summers of 1936 and 1937. It proved highly successful. Major stress was on acquiring reading knowledge. One great stimulus to intensive work was the encouragement to do much outside reading that fitted in with the student's own field of interest.

In the summer of 1937 the elementary group ranged in outside reading from 45 to 150 pages, mainly short selections. The advanced group covered from 75 to 400 pages, mainly novels, plays, and poetry. The method used was to introduce students to reading at the end of the second week, when they had become somewhat familiar with inflections of parts of speech. (This is rather complex in Russian, for it is a highly inflected language.) By the end of the fifth week, students were encouraged to do as much reading as possible. An evaluation of four years of work follows:

1. One hundred students and scholars received instruction. Many are now using the results in their own fields. The students represented a broad spread in field of interest and geographic distribution of origin.
2. In ten weeks of intensive study beginners can obtain a reading knowledge of Russian, while advanced students become proficient in handling Russian material with ease.
3. New materials were developed: textbooks, vocabularies, readers.
4. These materials were tested.
5. Interest in Russian has been fostered, especially among social-science students.
6. The experiment served as a pattern for similar studies in other languages. For example, in 1936 an identical experiment was begun in Chinese.
7. At Harvard and the University of California this type of summer school has been adopted as a permanent adjunct.
8. There is some hope for a general spread of intensive language work in summer schools.[8]

A more recent report comes from the University of Michigan, where an experimental course was given in the summer of 1939. Classes met twice a day, four days a week for seven and a half weeks, and once a week in social gatherings where Russian was used as much as possible. Results were encouraging: a passive or recognition vocabulary averaging eleven hundred words, an active or writing vocabulary of about three hundred words, and conversational ability sufficient to meet immediate needs in any Russian village or town.[9] Moreover, it was found that Russian is just

[8]Barnes, Kathleen. "Intensive Study of the Russian Language," *News Bulletin* (Institute of International Education), XIII (February, 1938), pp. 6–7.

[9]Pargment, Lila. "A New Approach to the Teaching of the Russian Language," *Modern Language Journal*, XXIV (February, 1940), pp. 362–63.

as accessible to American students as any other foreign language.

It would seem that the status of Slavonic studies in American universities is still largely experimental—this, in spite of its continuous career at Harvard since 1896, and its tremendous outburst in California. There have been periods of sudden growth, signalized by such cataclysmic events as the World War I and the Communist Revolution. Not infrequently the same events which encouraged Slavonic studies in one sector of the country were responsible for their decline in in others (*vide supra*, Yale University). Thus, it is extremely difficult to predict the future with any degree of accuracy. A European crisis involving Russia, such as the present one, may easily result in a mushroom growth of courses in Russian all over the country, or may just as easily result in their suppression. A great deal depends on the appeal of the moment to the great and fad-

[*Continued on page 58*]

TABLE I

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF UNIVERSITY COURSES ON SLAVIC OR EASTERN EUROPEAN SUBJECTS

Section of Country	Number of States	Number of Institutions	Number of Instructors	Number of Courses
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
New England	5	9	19	34
Middle Atlantic	3	13	23	46
South	2	5	6	9
Middle West	5	8	16	63
Trans-Mississippi	5	8	11	25
Rocky Mountain	1	1	2	3
Pacific	3	6	15	58
District of Columbia	1	2	4	7
Totals	25	52	97	246

TABLE II

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF COURSES

Course	New England	Middle Atlantic	South	Mid-West	Trans-Mississippi	Rocky Mts.	Pacific	District of Columbia	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
General Slavonics	4	2	.....	.....	3	.....	5	.....	14
Eastern European	5	7	.....	19	6	2	3	1	43
Central Northern	2	1	1	2	.....	.....	4	.....	10
Czechoslovakian	1	2	7	18	9	.....	3	.....	40
Polish	1	2	.....	3	.....	.....	4	.....	10
Roumanian	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Russian literature	7	10	.....	10	4	.....	28	5	64
Russian history	11	9	1	8	3	1	8	1	42
Serbo-Croatian	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	4
Totals	33	34	9	60	25	3	58	7	229

The College in a Changing World

By GLEN WAKEHAM

The Times Demand Courage and Ingenuity

THE educational ferment which has revolutionized primary and secondary education during the last generation has now begun, rather belatedly, to react on the collegiate world. "Higher" education has caught a glimpse of the handwriting on the wall and is wondering what to do about it.

One brave attempt to meet new conditions is outlined by Dean Donham, of Harvard Business School, in *Harper's*.[1] He foresees clearly many things which are likely to happen, and suggests palliative measures which might be temporarily effective. He writes, however, from the conservative, aristocratic viewpoint of Harvard and considers chiefly the interests of the privately endowed and tuition-supported schools, which constitute only a small proportion of our total educational effort. What is needed is a comprehensive picture of the scene as a whole, and plans which might be generally applicable to the total situation. It is probably true that there are certain unique educational functions which only privately supported schools can perform; yet it is equally true that our state universities are closely modeled upon the examples set them by the great private universities, in spirit at least, in that they attempt to guard academic freedom, encourage and support research, and preserve the fullest freedom for human thought. Even their curriculums and teaching methods are close imitations of the classic universities.

Dean Donham points out the decay of large fortunes and the middle classes, which have hitherto been the chief support of higher education, and suggests an "orderly contraction in size or a more imaginative attack on the problem." I do not think that much imagination is needed to see what the trend of educational demand will be. If higher education makes itself ready to meet the ever expanding requirements of an intelligent democracy, we shall need not less, but vastly more educational facilities at the college level than we have.

Caused partly by the development of technology and partly by the success of primary schools in giving some sort of intelligent education to the whole mass of our youth, the average age of leaving school has risen sharply of late years. The terrific stimulus administered by the war effort to our industries means that when the war is over a much narrower age-band of our popula-

[1]Vol. 184 (January, 1942), pp. 134–42.

tion—say twenty-five to forty-five years—will be able to supply all of our mechanical and agricultural needs. Furthermore, peace, if and when it comes, will release no one knows how many millions of youth, a large proportion of whom will be unable to find immediate employment. Instead of being fearful in the face of this probability, education should welcome it and seize upon it as a magnificent opportunity to set democracy more firmly upon its feet than ever before.

Most thinkers now deplore the fact that so large a proportion of voters have no adequate political or ethical comprehension—that the balance of power in our national elections is held by a huge block of paupers and crooks. A vast expansion of higher educational facilities is clearly called for, and would do more than any other single item in making formal democracy safe for the American republic and for the world.

MERE expansion, of course, is only the beginning of the effort required. Conservative educators—more particularly the deans of colleges of liberal arts—commonly hold that large proportions of our youth cannot profit by a higher education, and have devised various fiendish procedures to weed them out. It is true that the trail of American education is strewn by deplorable—and preventable—educational debris. Countless thousands of gifted youth have been permitted to loaf through school without any stimulus or incentive to adequate effort, and have loafed their ways through life without ever reaching anything like a full development of their powers. At the other end of the scale, millions have been damned as dunces, punished for stupidity, and depressed into permanent discouragement or even criminality. In primary and secondary education, the progressive movement has now succeeded fairly well in adapting the educational process to the child instead of attempting to mold all children in harmony with an arbitrary, traditional set of curriculums.

This is a lesson which colleges and universities still have to learn. It will not be an easy task. Most college teachers are rather narrow-minded specialists. The few who wish to liberalize and generalize college offerings, adapting them to individual student programs (as Dean Donham effectively advocates), find their efforts stymied by hide-bound departmentalism and traditional curriculums. A few enlightened boards of regents and trustees have tried to break into this situation, but they are helpless without the sympathy and co-operation of the teaching body. A few schools, however, have made the break and are doing brilliant work. There are models enough to point out the way, but it will be necessary, first, to develop a body of teachers with the essential training, ideals, and enthusiasms. At least one inspired school has taught thousands of "Dust Bowl" boys and girls to live in comfort and culture in one of the country's most treacherous and discouraging environments, formerly haunted by the ghosts of countless economic failures. Our educators

should study such examples—and profit by them.

We must face, then, the prospect that within a few years we shall be called upon to furnish some kind of higher education to vastly increased numbers of youth—probably nearly all those who finish high school, and the high schools in some states are already taking in a majority of the youth of high-school age. We must give them, not necessarily any traditional type of higher education, but some kind of education by means of which they can profit—no matter how our sacred deans may moan over a "lowering of standards." We must try to discover those educational processes and techniques which will make all of our youth intelligent citizens, able to co-operate economically and politically toward the achievement of the highest democratic ideals.

It will not be easy to liberate ourselves from the aristocratic tradition in higher education—the idea that only children of the upper and middle classes can profit by a college education. Numerous intelligence tests indicate that the children of the lower-income groups—which will come to constitute more and more the bulk of our population—are not appreciably lower in fundamental intelligence than their more economically favored contemporaries. In our present college system about half of the candidates for college degrees fall out by the way for one reason or another, and the "low-class," nonfraternity candidates do no worse than the others. Our problem is not to weed out unsuitable material, but to devise educational programs which will be suitable to all save those who are definitely subnormal.

It should be pointed out that this does not mean any lowering of standards. On the contrary, the colleges will have larger groups from which to select those who are particularly gifted for specialization. It will make possible a much needed stiffening of pre-professional standards. It is quite true that only a small proportion of our youth are endowed with the particular mental kinks essential to success in law, engineering, medicine, scientific research, or other professions. Before the outbreak of war the market was already crowded in some fields with incompetent professionals which the charity or laziness of professors had allowed to graduate in spite of inadequate achievement. But the new plan of higher education, instead of casting these particular incompetents into the discouraging, demoralizing outer darkness of academic failure, will shunt them into fields where they show reasonable promise of success.

THE taxpayer will ask, "How is this vast educational expansion to be supported?" To which the obvious answer is that these masses of young people will have to be supported anyway, in some fashion or other. And it will be cheaper in actual dollars and cents—not to mention higher values—to have them in school, training for intelligent citizenship and productive vocations, than drifting in idleness, vagabondage, or even criminality. Countless thousands of young people have

already proved that they can go to school at an expense no greater than the average overt or disguised dole. Time was, until recently, when it was necessary for most children to go to work at an early age to obtain the crude necessities of life and support a sort of civilization. Now we can produce an abundance of necessities and luxuries with the half-time efforts of half our adult population. It is up to the wisdom and ingenuity of our political, scientific, and educational leaders to see to it that this more than sufficiency of material things is a blessing rather than a curse. Totalitarianism has demonstrated one method by means of which an impoverished nation can lift itself, in defiance of all economic and financial traditions, to a deadly economic and military efficiency. It should not be beyond the ingenuity of a rich democracy to distribute its plethora of natural and industrial wealth so as to give all of our people the optimum chance in life.

Our higher educational system, then, should plan boldly and courageously for a vast expansion of educational facilities at the college level. It should telescope and dovetail traditional and pre-professional courses so that the specially gifted student can progress as rapidly as his abilities warrant. It should raise pre-professional and professional standards so that only thoroughly competent and adequately trained students can achieve the technical professions upon which our civilization so largely depends. On the other hand, instead of rejecting the masses of high-school graduates who do not show promise of success in expert professional callings, it should furnish courses of study and devise programs suited to the individual's abilities.

It should study local industrial and agricultural conditions, as well as general trends, and be able to give expert vocational guidance and training to all varieties of student ability. Students who are clearly unfit for the more severe technical callings should be encouraged to round out their college training by courses in politics, ethics, religion, economics, and practical citizenship—courses not severely scholastic but adapted to the average student's comprehension and replete with practical, contemporaneous illustrations. The fields of co-operation, teamwork, and leadership should be rescued from the domination of semi-professional athletics and other activities, and the students' natural, instinctive tribal loyalties be diverted into practical projects, both local and general. Only by these means can we avoid a vast, tragic waste of energy and ability when the time comes for us to settle down and reorganize our threatened civilization.

The Training of Teachers of Philosophy

By MAX BLACK

Indicating the Content and Spirit of an Experimental Program

THE work of philosophers is not judged by the outside world according to the same standards as we ourselves employ. Supported by society mainly in virtue of our function as teachers, we are judged by our success in transmitting ideas and stimulating critical thought at the popular and nontechnical level. We are hired, in short, to perform what the French so pleasantly call the vulgarization of ideas. Philosophy's original contributions to learning, which most of us would regard as more valuable, are largely unintelligible and unappreciated by the nonphilosophical world. When a recent Gifford lecturer, himself not a professional philosopher, bit the hand that fed him by referring to philosophy's "tangled wilderness of technical and inconclusive debate," he was expressing an opinion that is widely held. Many laymen, like him, would prefer "discourses as little in the manner of Spinoza and Hegel as possible," and would gladly exchange a whole encyclopedia of metaphysics for a single edifying and portable slogan.

It is on the basis of research, nevertheless, that the work of a philosopher is judged by his fellow workers; the only reward for outstanding teaching ability that I am able to discover is removal from the classroom to the more rarefied atmosphere of an administrative office. I am far from wishing to urge that this present emphasis upon research is misplaced. But it is pertinent to draw attention to its influence upon the preparation of teachers of philosophy.

The peculiar concern of philosophy with questions of communication in the widest sense, with preserving and improving instruments for transmitting ideas and values, is highly relevant to the problems of education. One might expect, then, that philosophers would be apt to give special attention to the maintenance of high standards of thought, expression, and communication in the teaching of their own subject, and that special provision would be made for the guidance of those about to become teachers of philosophy.

The facts are different. The graduate student who has chosen the teaching of philosophy as a career will be fortunate if he receives any explicit guidance in the practice of

his profession. Some experience he will probably get, as a part-time assistant, in the course of which his students will generously bring to his attention his more obvious shortcomings as a teacher. If he is lucky he will also receive some advice about the planning of his work from an older colleague. But he will almost certainly enter upon his first full-time post in the state of preparation, so well described by Thucydides, of those "whose want of practice makes them unskilful, and their want of skill timid." By this time it will be too late to profit by criticism since any advice or supervision will be interpreted as veiled faultfinding and resented accordingly. The young instructor is left to overcome his timidity and lack of skill by his own devices, the rest of the story being a secret shared only with his own students.

Such an astonishing neglect of guidance for intending teachers of philosophy calls for some justification. An attempt might be made to do so on the basis of three more or less plausible assumptions.

It may be said that skill in teaching philosophy cannot itself be taught, that teachers are, in the time-hallowed, question-begging phrase, "born and not made." A nameless wit has remarked that this maxim has as much relevance to education as it has to obstetrics. It may be admitted that the qualities of scholarship and personality upon which outstanding ability as a teacher are based cannot be engendered by instruction, exhortation, or infection. But there is no good evidence to show that individual endowment in these respects cannot be improved by intelligent and persistent effort.

An alternative excuse for the neglect of special training of teachers of philosophy is harder to meet. There is some weight in the contention that the academic training received by philosophy students—with its emphasis upon the criticism of assumptions, the sympathetic understanding of alien perspectives, and the practice of dialectical method—itself constitutes an admirable preparation for teaching. While granting this, it may be questioned whether the academic preparation now provided is sufficient to take care of the practical problems which the young teacher faces. He needs to be shown in detail how the methods he has been engaged in studying are relevant to his more immediate problems.

Those, finally, who approve of such further guidance in principle but are pessimistic regarding its practicability may be invited to make the experiment before committing themselves to an adverse judgment.

IT IS time to pass from these generalities to a description of an experimental program in the training of teachers of philosophy which is already in operation. I will say a little about the organization of the course and devote most of my space to an account of the syllabus and methods employed, ending by an attempt to evaluate the success of the innovation.

In planning the course, the department of philosophy of which I am a member agreed upon the following

principles: that instruction should be given by means of group discussion within a seminar; that membership in the course should be voluntary, carry no academic credit, and be open only to graduate students nearing the end of their work for the Ph.D.; and that all members of the teaching staff of the department should co-operate in the work of the seminar.

The department happened to be exceptionally well situated for the introduction of such a course, having a number of able graduate students advanced enough in their academic work to profit by the kind of work we had in mind. There was a further advantage in the fact that of the six students participating all had had some practice in teaching, and all but two were assisting in departmental instruction throughout the time that the seminar was offered. The heavy study loads of those concerned determined the somewhat long interval between seminar meetings; the group met every two weeks throughout two semesters for a length of time ranging from an hour and a half to two hours, the total time occupied in the course amounting to some 30 hours.

An important feature of the arrangements made was the provision of somewhat elaborate assignments to be performed between meetings; reports of such work would often constitute the starting point for the seminar discussion. Before leaving these details of organization it may be well to add that while the work was voluntary, as already explained, no marks being awarded and no university credit received, an exacting level of achievement was required. The students have regarded the course as seriously as the more academic portions of their programs, the quality of work done being in the judgment of those concerned quite as high as in courses where the usual academic sanctions are enforced.

Considered in retrospect, the course is seen to have consisted in large measure of discussion and practical work connected with what I shall call demonstration teaching, the term being used here to refer to any teaching performed in public in the presence of critical observers.

THE procedure normally followed was for one member of the seminar to deliver a lecture (or engage in some other mode of teaching) either to the seminar itself or to a small class of undergraduates. Careful notes taken by the observers while the lesson was proceeding would provide the basis for the ensuing discussion. Sometimes this routine would be varied by having two students deliver short lectures on the same theme, and in one instance it was possible to arrange for a student, after teaching a section of a class, to observe the regular instructor do the same work with the remainder of the same class. Topics were chosen in such a way as to illustrate a variety of points bearing upon teaching problems; the demonstrations ranged from introductory lectures in an advanced graduate course to lectures in elementary courses intended for students not majoring in philosophy; and the methods have included straight lecturing, class discussion, and the prepared study of a text.

Those who are unfamiliar with this kind of work may feel that demonstration teaching is an unsatisfactory imitation of the long-term activity which constitutes the teaching of philosophy. There is, indeed, considerable force in the charge of artificiality; the chief performer feels himself to be on display and is correspondingly nervous, and the class may react to the strangeness of the occasion and the presence of observers. But with all due concession to such criticism, it remains true that demonstration teaching is potentially of the greatest value in bringing the neophyte's weaknesses to his own attention and, still more important, in providing a concrete basis for the discussion of teaching methods. Only those who have exposed their own teaching to the comment of a group of acute but sympathetic observers will fully appreciate the salutary effects of such experiences.

It is perhaps hardly necessary to add that considerable tact is needed if demonstration teaching is not to become embarrassing in an unrewarding way to the chief performer. But in a situation where each participant in turn becomes the victim, it is not hard to ensure that comment shall be restrained, impersonal, and objective.

THE work done between meetings in this part of the course was suggested naturally enough by the nature of the topic. Such exercises were performed as involved the preparation of detailed reports on the teaching of more experienced faculty members, the contrasting of lecturers' styles, or the testing of tentatively formulated conclusions about method in the light of observation in the classroom.

In choosing other topics for the course, a canvass of the students' wishes suggested that some information concerning the more mechanical aspects of the organization of courses in philosophy, covering such mundane matters as the allotment of marks and the proper conduct of examinations, would be of value to the members of the seminar. After discussion, a list of questions on which information was desired was compiled and submitted to the faculty members in the department. With their willing co-operation it was possible to make available to the graduate students a body of information which, while humble in its scope, may prove to be of direct practical application. (It is interesting to note here, as one of the points which emerged most frequently throughout the course, the variety of procedures which an inquiry of this kind elicits. To learn that in matters of teaching there is no uniquely right way is perhaps one of the most important lessons which the intending teacher may be expected to acquire.)

These inquiries into matters of organization suggested the value of including some discussion of the more macroscopic aspects of the planning of courses in philosophy. It was felt that there might be advantages in having faculty members talk informally about the aims and methods of selected courses, especially where the subject-matter or mode of presentation happened to be unusual. Every department of philosophy has courses

of this kind, often embodying the results of years of sustained attention to the problems of teaching philosophy; it is a pity that other philosophers learn about such work, if at all, only in the desiccated form of a textbook.

While shortage of time prevented as much discussion of this nature as would have been desirable, such reports as were actually given by members of the department proved to be of high value.

As the seminar progressed it became clear that most of the problems which arose had some connection either with problems of philosophic style (in a rather elastic sense of that designation) or with questions about the function and purpose of philosophy.

Under the first heading much discussion turned upon the differences between spoken and written style. In one of the most popular exercises, the students were invited to condense a short paper of McTaggart to a tenth of its length and then to expand their summary in their own words without reference to the original. This would be followed by careful comparison with the original paper—an experiment that can be recommended as a diversion to more experienced writers. Later the class undertook the writing of short original papers on narrowly circumscribed themes, their essays being circulated for written comment by each member of the group. Had more time been available, all members of the seminar might well have been invited to discuss I.A. Richards' valuable books, *Practical Criticism* and *Interpretation in Teaching*.

In illustration of the topic of spoken style, one meeting was spent in listening to extracts from lectures given on the campus by eminent visiting philosophers and subsequently recorded by the university's radio station. Here, as in other parts of the course, contrast between styles and methods proved an excellent means for developing critical awareness and sensibility.

WITH reference to the last heading of our syllabus, the function and purpose of philosophy, I will say only that it was never far absent from any of the discussions. Whether a member of the seminar was giving a broadcast talk on philosophy to a popular audience, or reporting the results of a canvass among his fellow students concerning their ideas as to the proper business of philosophy, or trying to arouse an interest in philosophy in some elementary class, he soon found himself facing the same problem. And in this way, the course, by resolving itself into a study of the nature and aims of philosophy, found relation, quite naturally, with the academic graduate courses in the department.

Enough has been said to indicate something both of the content and the spirit of this experimental program. The aim throughout was to keep the discussions at a level not too far removed from the transactions of the classroom and to avoid some of the starry-eyed generalities which are so often encountered in treatises on educational method. The absence of readings in psychology and other subjects which figure largely in the

curriculums of schools of education was deliberate (though shortage of time would in any case have prevented their inclusion). Some reading designed to introduce these young teachers to the background of college education, however, would have constituted a useful addition to the syllabus of the course. It would have been interesting to contrast the views of President Hutchins with the educational doctrines of Professor Dewey; and further excursions into the background of present educational theory (say a comparison of Jefferson's views on education with those expressed in Newman's *Idea of a University*) might prove equally illuminating.

It is hard to test the value of such a program as I have outlined and almost impossible to say whether those who have participated are better teachers for the experience. In the absence of other evidence, however, the reactions of the students themselves may have more significance.

Toward the end of the seminar the students were asked to answer the following three questions:

What value, if any, have you derived from the course; and which parts of it were of most value?

Would you recommend that the course be continued in another year?

Are you in favor of providing specific training in the teaching of philosophy?

The answers were encouraging to those who believe, as I do, that there is a *prima facie* case for more specific training in the teaching of philosophy. Nobody confessed to finding nothing of value in the course; and while it was the unanimous opinion that the demonstration teaching was of most benefit, the wide range of second choices suggests that none of the topics included were superfluous. All favored the continuance of the course and were emphatic in asserting the need for the provision of training in teaching. It would be interesting to find out whether other groups of graduates would arrive at the same conclusions.

My experiences and those of my colleagues in conducting this work have led me to formulate a number of tentative conclusions:

That some specific training in the teaching of philosophy is both feasible and desirable;

That such training should consist largely of practical work, in conjunction with discussion, given toward the end of the course of graduate study;

That the amount of time devoted to such work should be greater than was allotted in the experiment described, and might reasonably amount to two hours per week throughout one academic year;

That it is desirable that a number of experienced teachers, who have no qualms about making fools of themselves in public, should share the conduct of the class and the responsibility for its success.

It would be disingenuous to say that the outcome of the experiment has been to persuade me of the value of training in the teaching of philosophy, for that conviction was held at the outset; but it may at least be hoped that the work done has supplied a firmer evidential basis for a pre-existent prejudice.

A Perhaps Too Open Letter

By L. H. STIMMEL

Addressed to Educators with Capital E

THE writer is a member of the majority group among college teachers—the academic-scientific group—with whom you have a quarrel.

Both of us ought to be ashamed of ourselves. In the schools where by our own boast the permanent values of peaceful democratic living are being guarded, in the colleges and universities where the peaceful virtues are supposedly given hothouse nourishment, we are carrying on a petty fight, full of childish accusations and insinuations. At the shrine where we invoke the god of Maturity we are acting very immature.

For the sake of the important job that we are supposed to be doing, it is high time that we reach some compromise. Then perhaps each group may devote its whole energy and the benefit of the other's experience to its task—and incidentally, recover the dignity of the teaching profession.

With this purpose in mind the writer has taken it upon himself to present the matter as he and many of his associates see it. The opinions here expressed are probably supported by a large portion of our clan; however, they are presented here under a white flag. The purpose is compromise; we bring not a sword, but peace.

To begin with, there are many on our side who resent the insult as well as the threat which is implied in the frequent suggestions that the goblins of Education will get us if we don't watch out. Yet, if we knew that we could compromise with you, most of us would invite you to come to our aid. After all, we realize as well as you that there is dead wood in college teaching, and that there is stubborn, uninformed defense of it. It would indeed be difficult to find another field in which one who is incompetent can hold his job longer.

Furthermore, we college teachers have had little training in education before we start to work at it. Often we know about the processes of learning only those things which we pretend to have observed by ourselves. We use few more of the many available methods of presenting our material than we have had tried on us by our frequently incompetent predecessors. We are only beginning to discover the significance of human variations and human impulses in our students; we are content to fill them with as much fact as they can absorb, often leaving them puzzled as to how to use it. We do not study the student to find out what he needs. We are disorganized; we lack—for-

giveness, beloved colleagues—we lack integration.

To be modernized, college teaching, with its spottiness, its frequent fossilization, its uncompromising self-assurance, its frequent ignorance of what it is doing, needs such an invasion as you Educators have long threatened. Then why do we not invite you in? Are we afraid of you? Are you the butt of our witticisms and derision merely because we know that you are better than we are?

POSSIBLY, but there are three deeper reasons. One is that we are always differing with you on one basic issue; we consider subject-matter the most important element in education, and you are constantly searching for objectives and methods. We will never quite agree on the matter, though some of us suspect that you are as right as we are.

The second reason is that our best teachers, those stimulating, inspiring persons who make college valuable, can best grow and be useful in the relatively free, unsupervised atmosphere of the college. Frankly, we are jealous for them; we fear that you would reduce their effectiveness greatly if we allowed you to run loose with your stifling supervision, your tests and measurements, your integrations, your special methods, your infinitude of irrelevant correlations. You could, of course, answer that you might by such techniques improve the level of college teaching. But there are those among us who would say that judging from the evidence that comes to us in the form of the students we get, college teaching does not seem to be any worse than high-school teaching, and you have had that under your wing for a long time.

To explain the third reason we must be tactfully insulting.

To make your bed of thorns as soft as possible we will first make some concessions. We recognize that you do not trust the empirical basis on which even those of us who are otherwise most scientific try to teach. You are therefore trying to introduce exact science into an inexact field. You are at a great disadvantage compared to the high priest of the current god, Science—the chemist or botanist who can control his experiments; yet you in educational science are almost heroic, for you are trying to make a firm foundation for the solution of problems at which the "true" scientist shrugs his shoulders. In this sense, and it is a very important one, you are a trail blazer, and the physical scientist a pharisee.

But why, when your struggle is so noble in spirit, must it be carried on so vaguely, so unimaginatively, and so sheepishly? There is our great quarrel with you; that is why we have made all those unflattering remarks: calling you "peducators," referring to your field as the "unctuous elaboration of the obvious" and the "discovery by the educators of what everyone else has always known," and commenting, as one of our group did recently, that he was "too dumb to get his Ph.D. in science and not dumb enough to get one in education."

To show you what we mean: A recent writer in one of the important educational journals published

a review of the "significant" discoveries in an important field; most of the discoveries are truisms to anyone who has taught college English as much as one month. Another—prepare for a shock—has discovered that uneducated farmers read less than educated farmers; and still another hesitates to accept the startling conclusion that high-school literature courses do not stimulate students to read. What college English teacher of an IQ of 101 (thank you, incidentally, for the term) could not have told him these things after one semester's experience—if he considered it worth the words?

And why did you insist upon everyone being normal, alike; and why are your writings so alike? You seem to us to assume that the average child is the greatest of problems, averageness itself the greatest of objectives. It is in universal sameness of mind that Fascism can best prosper—and you set yourselves up as the defenders of democracy. Averageness is Society's formaldehyde, its insulation against change; above-averageness is its insurance against sterility and retrogression. Obviously, if everyone is adjusted to fit the social machine, the machine cannot change. We need those who would adjust, not merely themselves to society, but society itself.

Are you dealing, as we are, with the task of selecting the best students and training them for leadership? Yes, yes, we've heard; progressive education—but that is not very convincingly demonstrated and far too timid in scope.

Don't you recognize, dear Educationist, that thinking is needed in our society; that thinking is hard work, and thinkers must be trained? We in college do—most of us, at least—and we call in our best students, chat with them, suggest books to them and then discuss the books, frequently direct courses chiefly to them. We want to stimulate, to develop the best. It is primarily in this that we find a source of that satisfaction over the work well done, which is supposed to constitute half of our salaries; and we guard it jealously against your penchant toward normalcy.

Finally, why must you write and talk so dully? This charge does not apply to the best of you; but when we read your articles we get the impression that Education is filled with second-raters. Must every book read like a professor's notebook with each new idea—if any—redeveloped and repeated like a symphonic theme *sans* variations? Need nearly every article be like a Master's thesis? Must integration, evaluation, infinite adjectives ending in "al," levels, skills, objectivity, synthesis, procedures, and new phrases as current as swing hits constitute almost all your vocabulary?

THE writer has just spent considerable time reading pertinent articles in various educational magazines. In one of the best of these there were three articles that were alive in style and stimulating in content, but far more than half were written in a manner—it would be inaccurate to say a style—that is highly intelligent but almost wholly unintelligible. One of the most im-

portant he had to read twice, for the material in it was valuable, but in three thousand words there was not one concrete sentence.

A colleague tells of having written for an educational magazine in a specialized field. He received a letter from the editor not only accepting the manuscript, but thanking him for allowing the editor the privilege, at last, of reading a manuscript that was interesting.

But this dullness, this triviality, you say, is in imitation of the strongest traditions of our own scholarship. Is it any worse, you have a right to ask, to be obvious about high-school literature courses than to write a thesis about the rejected manuscripts of some obscure western novelist? *Touché*—we wince. But does it show good judgment to imitate our weakness and lag behind us if we may boast in our greatest strength—the span and intensity of our intellectual and aesthetic interests?

IT WOULD be splendid if responsibility for the marriage here proposed between college education and Education could be given to some group which would take the initiative and effect the necessary compromises. But we on our side are hardheaded. We take pride in our part in the civil war, in our traditions of scholarship and our independence of need for any theorists to interfere. You have made threats of invasion; we have answered (with a touch of fear that indicates the operation of our defense mechanism) that we know our own business.

This we must stop doing. Most of our defense of ourselves has been subterranean; now we must bring it into the open. Furthermore, we must follow your leadership in teaching facts less and people more. Finally, we must materially reduce our evaluation of science as we see it and accept your neophyte science at its full value.

You, on the other hand, must make a big concession. Whether our impression of you is true or not is beside the point—which is that we will never accept you until you manage to change that impression. To most of those in the academic fields Education seems dull, imitative, obvious, visionless, and unintellectual. We ourselves are perhaps as we have been pictured, turning our confused heads back and forth between our "old" type of education and your "new" one, like a puppy trying to catch a ball thrown continually past him. In this uncertainty we would welcome you if we could be convinced as a group that you had something worth while to offer us.

Perhaps this armistice cannot be achieved. But it is certain that unless it is done, we will continue to disgrace our name by quarreling, and education in America will continue to be cheated.

The Library Cataloger Has a Book

By ELLEN JACKSON

The Genealogy of a Catalog Card

TO MOST users of libraries, what happens to a book before it reaches the shelves is one of the minor mysteries. And yet a general idea of the so-called technical processes of preparation is useful to anyone who wishes that the card catalog would not just show its teeth and sulk when he starts to look for Smith on Child Labor, or that he knew whether the long decimal on the back of the library's copy of his own brain child is a batting average or a secret code for evaluating doctoral dissertations.

If you would know what is back of all this, come into the catalog department of a small college library—let us call it State for short—and see what happens to Mr. Brown's book one sunny afternoon. A small college library is chosen because it shows in microcosm all the processes that in larger institutions may be expanded, specialized, divided among a number of persons, and otherwise transformed, but that remain basically the same in most American college and university libraries.

One of State College library's most ardent patrons is Mr. Brown, professor of plant pathology. By his own admission, he loves to hang around the library. This is entirely commendable in him; and the members of the library staff, almost pathetically amiable souls in spite of cartoonists' libels, always welcome him, even when, with the air of expecting to sight Dr. Livingstone at any moment, he invades the *terra incognita* of the library, the catalog department.

Mr. Brown does not know exactly what the catalog department is, except that it holds up all the new books for a certain length of time. He makes a vague connection between the department and the little cards that are filed in the cabinet near the counter (the loan desk) where he goes to sign for books that he wishes to take from the library. He has learned that this file of cards is the catalog (although he usually refers to it simply as the card index), and it is logical that the catalog department should have business with the catalog. Besides, often when he comes into the cataloging room he sees the cataloger at her desk surrounded by stacks of the cards and an atmosphere of deep concentration. At such times he always says brightly, "Playing solitaire again, eh?"

EDITOR'S NOTE: Although the JOURNAL's style calls for *catalog* spelt with a final *ue*, in deference to librarians' preference it is spelled in this article as librarians spell it.

He also knows that the department is responsible for marking the books up enough so that they may easily be identified as library property. He has seen Janie, one of the student assistants without whom no catalog department could operate, lovingly plastering library bookplates inside the front covers of the latest receipts and stamping "State College Library" on page 101, where any thief would of course never look and so could be caught red-handed years after committing the deed. Finally, Mr. Brown knows that the department puts on the cryptic combination of letters and figures that is designated the call number, which determines the place on the shelf that each book occupies.

But beyond these generalities Mr. Brown does not care to go. His main interest in exploring the catalog department is to see the new books that sit upon the departmental shelves, waiting their turn to be cataloged, smelling of glue and printer's ink, and as yet unscarred by usage.

ON THE particular day that I have in mind, he pulled down one by one *Commercial Possibilities of the Texas-New Mexico Potash Deposits*, *Standard Methods for the Examination of Sewage*, and *Der Maler Daumier*. Finally he came to a small volume in a severe brown cover with black lettering. His face lighted up as he leafed through it, and presently he turned to lay it on my desk, saying carelessly, "Run this through for me, will you, please? I'd like to have it as soon as possible."

I restrained the impulse to answer that the catalog department is not a Chinese laundry, and replied that I should be "glad to—er—run it through." The good professor nodded and departed well pleased.

I was not ill pleased, either. Mr. Brown at least recognizes that the library cannot release books before they are properly entered upon its records and never, as some of his colleagues do, asks unreasonable privileges. And, I reflected, it is absurd to be annoyed over a choice of words. Mr. Brown does not seem to mind having his laboratory apparatus called "thingamajigs," and he cannot be expected to know any more about the technical details of cataloging than a cataloger knows of experimental pathology. As for the fact that handling a book "Rush," giving it precedence over all other work, somewhat disturbs the routine of the department, a certain number of these special orders is expected during the course of the day, and getting a needed book to the user is the function for which the library is organized. In large libraries where the catalog-department staff may include fifty or more persons, some catalogers handle only rush books, as others handle only those in certain subject fields; but in the small library the department is likely to be manned by a professional staff of one, and the cataloger has more varied duties than the entire personnel of a one-man band.

So I put aside the routine occupation that had engrossed me when Mr. Brown came in, and turned to speed his book to his waiting hands. I opened the little brown-covered volume, recognizing it from the bind-

ing as a Spon Institute monograph, and knowing from that identification that I could expect no help from the Library of Congress, the fairy godmother of small-college catalogers.

Being one of the greatest of libraries, the Library of Congress acquires most of the titles that any of the smaller libraries of the country is likely to receive. The Library of Congress, instead of selfishly cataloging its own books and expecting everyone else to do the same, prints duplicates of its catalog cards and upon order supplies copies of any card to the libraries subscribing to the service.

But the Spon Institute monographs do not receive the attention of either the Library of Congress or the co-operative cataloging project that has been organized to care for some of the waifs and strays that it neglects. To get Mr. Brown's book to him that afternoon it was necessary for me to catalog it, as it were, by hand.

NOW, the catalog's primary record of any book, the main entry or main card, consists of five parts: the call number; the author's name; the body of the card, made up of the title, the place of publication, the publisher, and the date of publication; the collation, giving the number of pages in the book, its height in centimeters, and the number and kind of illustrations; and the notes of essential information, such as the title of the series to which it belongs, physical peculiarities such as decorated end papers, and the nature of its contents if not otherwise made clear.

The author's name always appears, if it can be made known to the cataloger by any method, however devious, in the merciless ray of its full glory. There are no doubt men who would give deathless literature to a waiting world if it were not that, as soon as the library catalogs burgeoned with their names, the shame concealed in the modest reticence of initials would be blazoned forth. The cataloger's interest in these personal matters of middle names and dates of birth is not morbid curiosity. We feel no unholy glee in revealing that L. S. Smith is really Lysander Sylvester, and that he was born longer ago than he wishes to admit. But there are too many L. S. Smiths of various vintages who have broken into print to escape confusion in the catalog unless further means of identification are furnished. It is better for authors to submit to being fully labeled, like good botanical specimens, and assure their proper place in the file. To hide behind an initial is to court obscurity.

As I opened Mr. Brown's book, I hoped for the author's sake and for my own that whoever wrote the thing was aware of this important principle. But, alas, the title page read thus:

Composition
of
Interveinal Mosaic
of
Potatoes
by
C. Glock
New York
Spon Institute
1939

I looked for a foreword that might at least tell what C. Glock's particular claim to fame or his local habitation

might be, but the man's passion for anonymity was evidently boundless. I should have to track him down. Glancing about to be sure that Janie had not pasted herself into a book, that the student typist was normally occupied, and that George, whose duty it is to letter the call numbers onto the books, was not asleep, I set off for the reference room to unearth the secret of C. Glock's birth.

It was fairly simple, after all. *Qui êtes-vous* for 1936 informed me that his full name is Charles François Marie Glock-Maupin, Comte de Rienafaire, and that he was born in 1903. I did not wait to find out the details of the count's family and club life. They could wait until Janie was unstuck from the paste jar and Mr. Brown had his book.

Back at my desk, after awakening George and finding Janie still unattached, I took a three- by five-inch piece of copy paper (regular catalog cards are seven and a half by twelve and a half centimeters, just enough smaller than three by five inches to cause trouble), and, pencil poised, hesitated in inward debate. The Anglo-American Catalog Code, Bible of the profession, decrees that noblemen shall be entered under their latest title unless they are decidedly better known by another title or by family name. Now the Count evidently wishes to be known, for the present, at least, as C. Glock; but what international events, what human snobbery, might soon have the world referring to the distinguished scientist, Count Rienafaire, and bringing down recriminations upon the cataloger who listed him democratically as Glock-Maupin? One of the difficulties of cataloging is the normal cataloger's lack of prescience.

But when in doubt, follow the rule and make cross references. Cross references are the entries in dictionaries and encyclopedias that take the reader on those bouquet-*see*-nosegay, nosegay-*see*-posy, posy-*see*-bouquet merry-go-rounds, and leave him, muttering in his beard, just where he came in.

In a properly constructed catalog, however, the cross references simply take care of the differences of opinion that make horse races and impel some persons to look for a book under the name of Mark Twain while others search under Samuel Langhorne Clemens. One of the classic legends of the profession is that of the lost-looking youth who approached the loan desk and asked to see the Porter, William Sidney. The puzzled attendant knew of no one by that name connected with the place. The boy wailed, "I just want a copy of *The Four Million*, and it said to see 'Porter, William Sidney.' So may I please see him and get my book?"

At any rate, he got his book, and Comte de Rienafaire, Glock-Maupin, or just plain Glock, the work of our friend of indisposed potatoes shall also be available to his public.

The main entry, since his title is to be used, is Rienafaire, Charles François Marie Glock-Maupin, comte de, 1903–." The space after the dash will be filled by the hand of fate. Cross references are made from *Glock-Maupin, Charles François*, and *Comte de Rienafaire*, and from *Maupin*,

Charles François Marie Glock-, in deference to the American notion that the final portion of a man's name is the business end of it, regardless of what excess baggage it pulls.

Below the author's name come the title, imprint, collation, and series note, so that the copy slip now reads (note lack of capitals):

> Rienafaire, Charles François Marie Glock-Maupin, comte de, 1903–
> Composition of interveinal mosaic of potatoes, by C. Glock. New York, Spon institute, 1939.
> 103 p. 12 cm. front., illus., pl., tab., diagrs. [Spon institute monographs, no. 11]

The cryptic abbreviations expand to read: One hundred three pages, twelve centimeters (the height of the book when standing up, if it ever does), frontispiece, illustrations in the text, a plate, a statistical table, and diagrams. The square brackets indicate that the series note is not on the title page. If it were, it would be enclosed in parentheses, which are known to the profession, for some occult reason, as "curves."

SINCE there are no collaborators or editors whose names would have to be used as headings, all that remains of the cataloging is to assign the subject headings, so that anyone looking for whatever the library has on the subject of potato mosaic can find out without knowing the names of all the authors who wrote about the subject. Different readers will approach the matter from different points of view. Some will take up the potato angle, so I noted *Potatoes—Diseases and pests*. Others will think first of the disease, so I added *Mosaic diseases*.

These headings are not simply plucked out of the air in a fond attempt to read the minds of prospective users. The headings, too, are sponsored by the Library of Congress, whose ponderous tome, *Library of Congress Subject Headings*, is as necessary equipment for the cataloger's desk as is a green blotter. Of course, headings cannot be taken in blind faith from the list. It is absurd to think of using exactly the same headings for a library of fifty thousand volumes as for one of millions, and for a small liberal-arts college as for the national library. Upon the cataloger's ingenuity and diligence depends whether the subject headings are a meaningless hodgepodge or a system of relating and organizing knowledge as a good highway map charts the network of roads that will take the traveler wherever he wants to go.

Assigning the subject headings completes the technical process of cataloging the book. This example has been constructed to represent a very simple type of book, from the cataloger's point of view. The title is brief and straightforward; there are no editors, translators, or preface writers to be considered. The book has not appeared elsewhere under another title. It is a unit of a series, the "Spon Institute Monographs," and an entry will have to be made on the catalog card that lists the library's holdings in that series. But in comparison to the complications that can arise from third American editions from the fourteenth German, commentaries with revisions, and such

bibliographical vagaries, a simple series note is child's play.

THE classification remains to be done. State College Library, like most college and public libraries of this country, uses the ingenious decimal system of classification originated by Melvil Dewey, one of the patron saints of the profession. Like most patron saints, he had his idiosyncrasies, most conspicuous of which was his advocacy of simplified spelling. The sight of:

Tables of subsections of Jeneral works
Filosofy
Relijion
Social sciences [sic]
Filolojy
Pure syence [sic][1]

is not calculated to raise the spirits of the library-school novice, who grumbles that it would be bad enough in plain English. The scheme is also obsolete in some portions, leaving psychology as a division of philosophy, and being antiquated in the social and physical sciences, although internal expansion within the original framework goes on. But in spite of time and tide, broken atoms and split personalities, the Dewey Decimal System still enables libraries to locate their books, which fact accounts for its continued use.

To place the monograph on mosaic diseases of the potato in its proper place in the scheme, I turned the well-thumbed pages of my desk copy of Dewey to the division "Botany." The main class 500 is Pure Science, 510 Mathematics, 520 Astronomy, 530 Physics, and so on to 580 Botany. Physiologic and Structural Botany is 581, and without a decimal point the classifier would be left to lump potato mosaic with everything from embryology to ecology.

But a single dot can open the way to infinite subdivision. Only three figures can appear before it, but after—ah, after—as many as the catalog card will hold. Being reasonable creatures, catalogers (classifiers, if you will, since in small libraries they are the same person) usually do not indulge in orgies of decimal expansion, but we always feel the power under our pencil point. Someone has toyed with the idea of having to classify a book in the Slovakian language on fire drills at the Newark airport, which would come out 629.136097493200036382354. If it is not in Slovakian, it does not count.

To return to 581, Physiologic and Structural Botany, a section of 580 Botany, which is a division of class 500 Pure Science. The number 581.1 is Plant Physiology, and 581.2, Plant Pathology, so the quest is narrowing. The table continues: 581.23 Parasitic and Infectious Diseases, 581.232 Diseases Due to Parasitic Plants, 581.233 Diseases Due to Parasitic Animals, 581.234 Virus Diseases. No more minute subdivision is indicated for different virus diseases, and although Dewey is susceptible to local variation, State is willing to settle for six figures.

The classification number is not enough, however, to identify the book completely. If I know Mr. Brown, another tome on potato mosaic will some day make its appearance on my

[1]The fourteenth edition of his work has shifted to standard spelling, thus losing this particular gem.

shelf and necessarily receive the same classification number. To take care of the eventuality of having two books on the same subject in one library, another giant of the profession, C. A. Cutter, originated a system of book numbers that, used in conjunction with the classification number, make the full call number of the book. The book number is actually a combination of numbers and letters, the first letter of the author's surname, followed by a combination of numbers based upon the letters of the surname, and another letter for the title of the book. Rienafaire on the *Composition of Interveinal Mosaic of Potatoes*, then, has the book number R557c.

I wrote 581.234 in the upper left
R577c
corner of the copy slip and on the back of the title-page of the book. Then I called George to letter the call number on the back of the book, and gave the copy slip to the typist for her to make the full set of cards for the catalog and the shelf list. This set includes the main card, the subject entries, and the shelf-list card. Each of the subject cards is a duplicate of the main card, with the subject written in red above the author's name, to be filed in the catalog under the subject given. The shelf-list card is a duplicate of the main card, to be filed in the shelf list, which gets its name from being arranged as the books are on the shelves, by call number.

HAVING done my duty by Mr. Brown, I returned to my routine work, which at the time involved cataloging serials. A serial, according to one of several definitions, is a publication that comes out in parts at regular intervals and intends to continue until death or merger. *The Saturday Evening Post* is a serial, and so are the *Berliner Tageblatt* and the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. The trick in cataloging such a publication is to make one card indicate the facts of its life, the date of its birth, history and present state of existence. If it has given up the ghost, one puts down the date of first and last issues and total number of volumes. If it is still alive, one puts the date of first issue, and pencils "to date" in the space left for the final issue, somewhat as in the case of leaving a space for the date of young Count Rienafaire's death. Philosophical souls, we catalogers.

This all sounds fairly simple, and would be if magazines and other serials would select a title and an editorial policy and stick to them, but when one begins in 1909 as *Hearth and Home* and goes through various metamorphoses to pass out in 1935 as *The Cocktail Set*, the cataloger becomes a bit dizzy following it about. Scientific and technical journals are the worst offenders. I once cataloged an engineering magazine that suffered eighteen changes of title.

By the time the serials were disposed of it was growing late, and the day's work of George the marker, Evelyn the typist, and Betty the filer had still to be checked for errors. No use checking Janie the paster's work. If she had planted a bookplate in the middle of the map of Treasure

Island that decorates the end papers of our new set of Stevenson, we should all know it soon enough. But George, by writing 881 instead of 818, could move Christopher Morley from American Miscellany to Greek Poetry, doubtless provoking another essay. Misfiled cards and misshelved books are simply lost, so much of the cataloger's time must be taken up with checking the accuracy of all the work of the department.

I looked at all the books that had been marked with their respective call numbers and sent them on their way to the loan desk, with Mr. Brown's, a red "Rush" slip waving from it, conspicuously on top. I saw that all the newly inserted cards were in place. Then I sat down to read the typed cards that Evelyn had made that day.

As I labored through the stack of cards, the loan librarian looked in the door and murmured, "I called Mr. Brown's office to tell him his rush book is ready. He left at two o'clock for the city, and will be back," she intoned in the sugared accents of his secretary, "next Tuesday in time to meet his class in Botany 104."

I finished reading the cards, and the cataloger's afternoon was over. Mr. Brown did not want his book at once, but he would be much astonished if it were not ready whenever he did think of it in the next few days. And in every library with which I am acquainted, the unsung cataloger, as well as all her colleagues of the library staff, is doing her best to ensure that Mr. Brown is not astonished very often.

Case-Study Techniques

By ESTHER ALLEN GAW

Developed in the Office of a University Dean of Women but Suggestive to Other Personnel Workers

THIS article is intended to point up the principles of preparing records for use in the office of a dean of women and of evaluating them so that the advice of the adviser herself may be useful in the fields of guidance. Case-study techniques include knowing how to maintain files and records of each student, how to counsel her on the basis of what is found therein, and how to interpret the bearing of that record on the social situation in which the student is found. The techniques here described for recording and evaluating are applicable to all types of guidance.

Before trying to make use of "techniques of advising," a counselor should first study herself. She should examine her own ability to be a detached and at the same time a sympathetic observer of the moral and social situations in which any student may find herself. The adviser who has made and is continually making wise decisions as to her own moral and social problems can be really helpful because she is able to get a perspective on those of a student ultimately. "Physician heal thyself" is the first commandment in the use of case-study techniques.

An adviser should make use of the records at hand in her own institution. All high schools and colleges have records of the academic marks of their students. Almost all, in addition, have records of objective tests giving the relative position of each student in various departments of knowledge. Often the high school or college has not assembled these in one place. If so, the first effort of an adviser is to centralize, for herself at least, the records which do exist.

The records finally assembled by the adviser should show the environmental background, including that of the student's family. They should give evidence regarding her biological condition—health or sickness, fine physique or physical handicap—as well as relative intelligence as shown by marks and objective tests. In addition, they should show the present social interrelation and significance of the two fundamental factors, the environmental and the biological equipment.

There are many helpful suggestions for keeping records of environment. Ben D. Wood's long experimentation in making cumulative records is suggestive and valuable. Herbert A. Toops, at Ohio State University, has

also worked out effective ways of keeping such records. The cultural records will include among many other possible items the countries and types of communities in which a student has lived, church membership, the occupation of father and mother, the size of high school, the course taken in high school, the activities in high school, the number of brothers and sisters, and the vocational and avocational interest. The records of innate physiological endowment will include those of age, of general health, or of specific weaknesses due to disease or accident; of physical beauty or physical handicap; of relative college intelligence determined by high-school and college achievement and by objective tests, and of emotional reactions as observed by adviser or recorded by the advisee.

An adviser would do well to study her own institution and see which of the two kinds of records already exist. If the form of recording is imperfect or inadequate, she might experiment, using in a mimeographed form the better types of questions found on blanks devised by other personnel workers—forms such as those of Wood or Toops. Perhaps in a relatively short time such an experimental record could be put into printed form. It would be better not to adopt a form used by another personnel worker or in another school until it has been tried in mimeographed form in the institution where she proposes to use it.

IN ADDITION, continuous anecdotal records should be collected. In writing such anecdotal material the adviser should be familiar with the recent discussions about "the meaning of meaning." We are warned by writers as diverse as Ogden and Richards, Alfred Korzybski, and Stuart Chase that personal inferences should not enter into the historical or factual description of an incident. Therefore, an anecdotal record of a fact written by an adviser about an advisee should not contain words of approval or disapproval. When the adviser wishes to express her opinion of "goodness" or "badness," she should write that down as an inference in a place entirely separated from the factual material.

Korzybski gives excellent directions for the use of the anecdotal method. He warns that words are symbols and that each individual hearing or using any word will not be thinking of exactly the same act. Therefore, he suggests that the writer be specific in his use of words. He suggests next that the occurrence be dated exactly. Then, finally, he insists that inference be separated from the descriptive material, and suggests that whenever a generalized inferential word is used it be placed in quotation marks. The use of the quotation marks is a sign to the reader, or to the adviser herself on a later date, that the word is intended to be inferential, not factual.

I cannot do better in short space than to quote an illustration about the "meaning of meaning" from Stuart Chase:

> Take the word "bad." It probably arose to express a vague feeling of dislike. Rather than go to the trouble of describing the characteristics one did not

like in an animal or a plot of soil, one said, "It is bad." All right, a useful short cut. Then the word was made into a substantive, "badness." At this abstraction level, it became something ominous and menacing in its own right. One had better not be associated with badness. Badness was incorporated into rigid standards of judgment, especially moral judgment: "This girl is bad." The statement implies that she is wholly bad, a veritable chunk of badness. But she may also be a charming girl, kind to children, kind to her parents, and perhaps overkind to her young man. To cast her out of society as "bad" is the result of a false, one-valued or two-valued appraisal. Adequately to judge this girl, we must make a many-valued appraisal; we must know her other characteristics, the circumstances of the environment in which she was brought up, the status of the moral code at the place and time of the alleged badness, and something about the economic and social prejudices of the judge who calls her "bad."

Here is a boy who will not get up in the morning. His parents conclude that he is "lazy." "Laziness," as a substantive, is akin to "badness" in the American folkways. The boy receives the harsh treatment which laziness warrants, and presently becomes deranged and unmanageable. Fortunately at this point a doctor is called in. As a scientist he discounts verbal judgments and proceeds to a careful examination. He finds the patient's glands seriously out of order. The condition is corrected, and the boy gets up in the morning. By identifying their son with "laziness," the parents had almost wrecked his life. Think of the catastrophic judgments being passed right and left upon persons who are "poor," "dirty," "ungrateful," "undesirables," "ignorant foreigners," "reds," "Babbitts," "rich," "capitalists," "bosses," "niggers," "greasers."

. . . to show that Korzybski, in his semantic analysis, often indicates a standard of judgment which we have long associated with toleration toward our fellow creatures and kindness in our treatment of them. He adopts this standard not because he is inspired with "love for humanity," but because it is the conclusion which the facts seem to warrant. Wholly bad girls and lazy boys are not to be found anywhere except in our own heads.[1]

An anecdote written in this manner by any adviser with other anecdotes added later by the same or other advisers will give various pictures of each student, from which she may legitimately draw "good" and "bad" inferences.

EXAMPLES of environmental facts, physiological facts, and inferences of an adviser from the case record of a single student are arranged here in the general manner suggested:

STUDENT V—

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTS

Before College—

Lived in the country a little more than half of her life, and the rest in a small town.
Went to a small town high school near a large city.
Had no scholastic honor in high school.
Belongs to Methodist Church.
She was reported after entering college as having reputation of "running after boys."
September, 194–
The family is somewhat pressed for money. At the time this girl came to college, an older daughter was having heavy doctor bills.

At College—

September, 194–
Asked for work, was given room and board.

[1]Chase, Stuart. *The Tyranny of Words*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1938. pp. 77–79.

January, 194–
She works for room and board in a doctor's family. She does not have much free time. She is on call until late.
March, 194–
She changed employers three times.
March, 194–
She is living in a University House with other students.
April, 194–
She has become pledged to a sorority. The family encouraged her to do so. Now they request that she withdraw from sorority.
April, 194–
The family allows her a charge account at city stores but no cash.
May, 194–
She cannot drop history until she gets a dollar from home.
May, 194–
She goes shopping when she has no money, and charges the cost to her father's account.
May, 194–
She has a boy friend.

PHYSIOLOGICAL FACTS

Physiological Facts—
September, 194–
She is tall with regular features. She has clear skin, brown eyes, smiles in a "friendly way." Thanks adviser for interview.
October, 194–
Her entrance-test percentile is 53.
October, 194–
When first at college she was studying about half as many hours as necessary according to norms of college students.
January, 194–
She failed two subjects in the fall quarter.
April, 194–
She wants to go to sorority dances, even if she is "de-pledged."
April, 194–
She defends all of her actions vigorously.
May, 194–
Her marks by point-hour ratios are: 0.66, (fall), 1.54 (winter), 0.00 (spring).
May, 194–
She was reported as making drunken scene in a cafe near the University.

Inferences of Adviser—
She is "striking" or even "beautiful" in appearance.
She is "unhappy."
She is "defiant."
She does not always "tell the truth" because she contradicted herself about cutting classes. She also contradicted herself about being drunk.
She is "weak," does not have a "stamina" to get what is in college at the price she has to pay.
She is "more interested" in her boy friend than in study.
She was "unsatisfactory" to her employers.

IT WOULD be easy to quarrel with the pigeonholing of the items about drinking in this case history. Perhaps some readers would prefer to put them with the environmental factors, rather than with the physiological. I prefer to put items concerning academic ability as well as those concerning eating and drinking and physical activities under what Dollard calls "the organic motors of action." The only essential in pigeonholing is that the exact circumstances are described as accurately as possible and that this description is separated from the adviser's personal inferences.

Anecdotal material should also include letters and other written materials by the student herself. Any letters to some officer in the Dean of Women's office should be kept. Several colleges ask each entrant for her autobiography. Others obtain the autobiography in their health clinics, but these are usually not available to the personnel adviser. The description of any situation in the words of a student herself constitutes a cross section of her biography, and

[*Continued on page 58*]

· *With the* · Technicians ·

The "Unsupervised Quiz Period"[1]

For several years it has been one of the writer's duties to teach a survey course in general college chemistry—a course designed to give some "cultural" idea of the subject rather than any technical mastery. The class—although large, over two hundred students—is not a popular one. Its membership consists chiefly of students who have to make up a high-school deficiency in science, or who are seeking the science "basic" in which they can get by with the least effort. Hence, they enter the class with initial aversion rather than with any enthusiasm, and have, in most cases, no natural aptitude or instinct for science. In a department devoted primarily to the training of professional chemists, or meeting prerequisite requirements for engineering, medicine, and other technical professions, such a class is the stepchild of the departmental faculty, has to take what is left over from other courses in the way of laboratory and demonstration facilities, and gets only a minimum amount of help in unenthusiastic teaching assistance.

The writer is a firm believer in the thesis that the most effective teaching is done when the teacher comes into personal contact with individual students. When the average professor addresses two or three hundred students, his psychic potency is so diluted by diffusion into such a large audience that each student gets a very small portion of it. Yet the time available does not allow the professor in charge of a large class to meet them all in small groups, and it is not often possible to secure the services of assistants of sufficient ability and enthusiasm to conduct small recitation classes successfully, particularly when the assistants are concerned primarily with their own graduate work and the classes are recalcitrant, sullen, and resentful over having to expose themselves to the "damn junk" at all.

To solve this rather uninviting situation, the writer has devised a semi-progressive plan which seems to work fairly well. To meet the formal requirements of the college two general lectures a week are given, in which the descriptive and theoretical aspects of the course are presented. The lectures are seasoned with occasional spectacular demonstrations, that the whole group can see, bits of historical chemistry, chemical anecdotes, industrial applications, practical advice in personal applications of chemistry—such as dietetics, medicine, agriculture, liquor and tobacco, cosmetics—with a few stray fragments of scientific philosophy. These devices, with an occasional joke or unexpected pun, serve to keep a fair

[1]Reported by Glen Wakeham, Professor of Chemistry, University of Colorado.

proportion of the class awake most of the time.

More serious work is done in small weekly demonstration sections, in which experiments unsuitable for a large audience are presented. These are recorded by the students, and frequent tests are given on the details and significance of the experiments. This, of course, is "old stuff" to experienced teachers.

The only halfway original item in this program is the weekly "quiz section," in which most of the honest-to-goodness learning on the part of the students is accomplished. The teacher meets the class in small groups, each group once a week. The first part of the hour is spent in presenting some carefully unified topic—some law, theory, principle, or type of problem. The last part of the period is occupied by a written quiz, usually involving the working of simple problems, the completion and balancing of partial equations, or the working out of "completion" tests.

College education has been criticized as being scholastic, individualistic, verbalistic, and impractical, giving the students no opportunities for co-operation, teamwork, or the development of social instincts. In these quiz sections a spirit of freedom and mutual help is encouraged. The students are told to use their textbooks or any notes they may have in working the problems or answering the questions. They are advised to consult each other freely and to compare their answers. They are asked only to keep their discussions within reasonable vocal limits. In every section there will be at least a few good students. These are asked to help the others, not by letting them copy their work, but in trying to explain why under the circumstances the problem should be solved by addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division.

All problems are kept extremely simple, numerically. They are designed to illustrate chemical principles rather than to provide exercises in arithmetical virtuosity. Far too many science problems are so complicated that the student gets tangled up in calculations and completely misses the scientific significance of the problem. Such problems are merely stumbling blocks rather than aids in scientific comprehension. Students are warned that they should try to get real help from discussions with their neighbors, and that mere verbalistic copyists will certainly be caught in the "formal" examinations which are held from time to time, if, indeed, they do not betray themselves by "dumb blunders" in their copying.

The teacher sometimes remains in the classroom for a few moments to answer any initial questions of interpretation which may arise, but usually leaves the class to its own uninhibited devices. He may, if any given section has shown a tendency to disorder or ribaldry, remain within hearing distance, and re-enter the classroom in time to quell any incipient riot. In actual experience, however, this has rarely been necessary. Students are free to leave the class as soon as they have finished the exercise and deposited it on the teacher's desk. This usually disposes of any mis-

chievously disposed "bright" ones, who are glad to get away.

There are always a few, of course, who copy verbalistically and unintelligently, without any effort to understand. They are always caught in the end, and fail in the course unless they mend their methods of study. But the more intelligent usually clinch their grasp of the subject-matter by explaining it to others, and the poorer students get an enormous amount of valuable personal help. Here and there a "superior" student catches fire with a genuine enthusiasm for chemistry, chiefly on account of the teaching opportunity afforded him by this system, and decides to "major" in it, although he had previously felt no interest in the subject.

An important item is the prompt, careful marking of all quiz papers and the immediate return of them to the students. A last-week quiz is as stale as yesterday's newspaper. Although the gaining of high grades is a philosophically unworthy incentive to academic work, it is still a very real one. When individual students or groups differ in their answers to problems, and are sufficiently interested to discuss their favorite solutions and even bet on them, they incidentally learn a little chemistry.

Liberal-Arts Students Advised to Withdraw[2]

Students who have fallen below a *C* average in the Liberal Arts Division at Michigan State College are carefully studied at the end of each term by a scholarship committee and, in order of the severity of their problems, are warned, put on probation, advised to withdraw, or asked to withdraw. It would be difficult, and would to some extent defeat the purposes of such a committee, to set down any exact rules governing the use of the various scholarship actions. A student is advised to withdraw when the committee is fairly certain that he will never do satisfactory college work. If he returns, he is automatically on probation. When the committee is convinced that satisfactory work will never be forthcoming, the student is asked to withdraw and may not return.

It is evident that the work of the committee increases with the number of possible actions, for finer distinctions and more consideration are needed to classify the students into four or five groups than into two or three. With this in mind, a question was raised regarding the value of the action "advised to withdraw." Might it be that the students who were advised to withdraw would have been better off if they had been asked to withdraw? The study reported here was undertaken to obtain information on what happened to students to whom this advice had been given. It was realized before the study was begun that such information would not in itself provide an answer to the question posed, but it was also realized that no logical answer could be determined in the complete absence of such information.

Over the two-year period 1936 and 1937 a total of 171 students were

[2]Reported by Paul L. Dressel, Secretary, Orientation Office, Michigan State College.

advised to withdraw. Some were advised to withdraw more than once, so that a total of 193 actions of this type were taken. About 81 per cent were Freshmen; some of them were second-year students who had not attained sophomore rating. Only 7 students of junior or senior ranking were advised to withdraw, and they had lengthy records of scholarship difficulties. The "advised to withdraw" action was usually, although not always, preceded by some action of lesser severity. Of these 171 students only 34 withdrew and of the 34, after staying out for a term or two, 7 returned. About 84 per cent of the students who were advised to withdraw ignored the advice.

Some evidence suggested that those who accepted the advice and withdrew might well be the more serious students—ones who should have returned if any were to return. They had a slightly higher point-average, .55 as compared to .44 of those who returned, and a slightly larger number relatively (18 per cent against 16 per cent) were in the highest three-tenths on the American Council Psychological Examination.

It is, of course, much easier to obtain information on the later career of students who return to college than it is on those who do not return. Hence, the major part of our collected information had to do with those who ignored the advice to withdraw.

For the students who returned to school in spite of the advice, 414 additional scholarship actions had to be taken by the committee, making, with prior actions, a grand total of 714 actions on a group of 144 students. If one estimates that each action requires 10 minutes' consideration for a committee of eight members, this means that about 1,000 hours of time have been expended. This amazing total does not include time used in collecting the information for consideration, in writing letters, and in consulting with the student before and afterwards. It is not surprising that there is an interest in determining whether all this work is worth while.

Since relatively few of the students who are advised to withdraw will actually withdraw, the action is used largely as a means of awakening a student to the seriousness of his predicament. About 90 per cent of the students who returned made some gain in their point-averages—the gains ranging from .001 to 2. The rest fell even lower than before. The action gives a spurt of enthusiasm to most students, but in many cases the spurt is only temporary. Some lack of understanding of the seriousness of their difficulties is found in the fact that only 54 of 166 students would accept a reduced schedule, as recommended.

The following table summarizes the history of all the students who were advised to withdraw during the years 1936 and 1937:

Action	Number of Students
Withdrawn	90
Dropped out on own accord after getting off probation	11
Again advised to withdraw and did	5
Dropped out while still on probation	14
Graduated	21
Accepted advice	27
In school now	3
Total	171

In only 35 of the cases does the

"advised to withdraw" action show any advantage over the forced withdrawal if scholarship be taken as the criterion. Eleven of these 35 attained a satisfactory record before leaving the school. Twenty-one of the students finally were graduated, most of them exhibiting lengthy records of warnings and probations. Of the three still in school, all are expected to complete the requirements for a degree. If, however, this "advised to withdraw" action had not been possible, some of the 171 students would have been put on probation rather than "withdrawn."

A tabulation of the reasons for the poor work of these students who were advised to withdraw shows that only about one-fifth or less lacked the intelligence necessary for satisfactory college work. Finances and disinterest accounted for most of the difficulties encountered by the remainder.

This study shows some points in favor of the continuation of the action "advised to withdraw," and some points against its continuance. Among the favorable items we may list:

1. Its severity as contrasted with probation makes it somewhat more effective in arousing the student who decides to continue in school to the need for hard work.
2. It leaves many students with the feeling that they were provided every opportunity to make good before being dismissed.
3. It permits some students to remain in school and be graduated who could not otherwise do so.
4. Students who withdrew after receiving this advice feel better toward the College than if they had been forced to withdraw.

Among the unfavorable items are:

1. Some students who take the advice and withdraw would be better risks than those who ignore the advice.
2. The action necessitates much additional work for the Scholarship Committee.

The final decision regarding the continuance or discontinuance of the action depends on the importance assigned to each of the points listed. It has been decided that the extending of the advice to withdraw will be continued on much the same basis as in the past. The feeling that each student should have every chance to succeed was prominent among the factors involved in this decision.

Commission on Postwar Training

The training or retraining of fifteen million Americans for peacetime jobs at the end of the war is an educational task in which the American public-school system and the United States Office of Education should have important rôles is the opinion of the Commission on Postwar Training and Adjustment expressed in a report distributed by the Institute of Adult Education of Teachers College, Columbia University. The task can be successfully completed, according to the Commission, if work is started now. The program should be financed by federal funds and should be chiefly the concern and responsibility of individual American communities.

The Commission is composed of forty-five specialists and educators from such fields as adult education, training in industry, university ex-

tension, work camps, Negro education, library service, group-work organizations, health and rehabilitation, labor, and training for women. It was called by the Institute and is a private body.

The report summarizes the findings of a six-day conference called by Morse A. Cartwright, executive officer of the Institute of Adult Education. The Wartime Commission of the United States Office of Education approved the conference.

The Commission on Postwar Training and Adjustment foresees three chief groups of Americans as needing help in the postwar period—men and women discharged from the armed services, displaced war workers, and the war-disabled. The latter will include the victims of industrial accidents and civilian defense efforts as well as those injured in battle. At least 29,000,000 Americans, the Commission believes, will be in our fighting services or in our war plants, and when peace comes from 15,000,000 to 20,000,000 of them will be "in a process of economic and social change."

"The only way in which we can hope to meet such an emergency condition successfully is to plan for meeting it now," says the Commission. Planning now will involve consultation and action on local, state, and federal levels. The Commission suggests for this local councils, and state and federal conferences. It recommends that definite steps to develop a co-ordinated program should follow these preliminary meetings.

On the federal level co-operating agencies should understand each other's basic objectives and those specific functions pertinent to the program. They should then draw up in writing working agreements with regard to mutual participation on a nation-wide basis, and transmit such agreements to all responsible officers throughout their organizations. Regional, state, and local officials should then develop working agreements at their respective levels in terms of the general pattern.

. . . . . .

The problem should be chiefly one for community action. It is to a community that discharged soldiers and workers will return. It is in a community that they will find occupational security. Cities and counties thus are the units which should play the most active rôles in vocational and other adjustment.

While the public schools are the most convenient and widely spread centers around which work can be organized, all community agencies which can be employed in training should take an active part in the program. These include industrial plants, labor unions, libraries, social-work organizations, universities, extension divisions, and technical schools.

·The·Reporter·

Two courses in the Russian language, running through the winter and spring quarters, will be taught by W. F. Galloway at the University of Kentucky. The classes will not be open to Freshmen. Joining other students in the classes will be a group of radio trainees from the Lexington Signal Depot at Avon, who were among those asking for a course in the language.

Courses are being given at Pennsylvania State College which will prepare coeds for ship drafting, airplane drafting, military map-making, engineering, laboratory work in fuel testing, wood technology, and textile chemistry. A foundation training in physiotherapy is offered, as well as courses enabling women to become trained metallurgists, mineral economists, and radio announcers.

In the Cornell University Program of Engineering, Science, and Management War Training, which makes available to fifteen upstate cities evening courses of sixteen-weeks duration, the current fall term has enrolled more than three thousand persons, the largest enrollment for any one term since the start of the program late in 1940.

"Counseling the Conscientious Objector" is the title of an article by Robert Hoppock, of New York University, in the *Educational Record* for October, 1942. It includes a brief statement of the conscientious objector's position, Selective Service regulations governing his classification, specific suggestions for high-school and college counselors in dealing with him, and sources of further information.

Preparation for all types of nursing services is described in a new pamphlet, *Professional Nursing and Auxiliary Services*, compiled by the Nursing Information Bureau of the American Nurses' Association. An unusual feature of the publication is a table showing the variety of positions open to nurses and indicating their salaries. The pamphlet, especially recommended to college and high-school counselors, may be obtained from the Nursing Information Bureau of the American Nurses' Association, 1790 Broadway, New York City, for 25 cents.

In accordance with the Government's attempt to present war information, Ball State Teachers College and Indiana University are among the colleges designated by the Office of War Information as Class I film libraries. The films, one-reel treatments of military subjects, are available free of charge to the faculty, student teachers, and campus organizations. A school, organization, or individual not on the campus must pay transportation costs and a

service charge of 50 cents for the first subject and 25 cents for each additional title.

WITH the object of establishing better cultural and economic relations with the Latin-American countries, the University of Denver, with the help of the United States Office of Education and the Office of Co-ordinator of Inter-American Affairs, has established a Latin-American center. Through the efforts of Ben Cherrington, adviser on cultural activities to the Department of State, a council on Inter-American affairs has been set up in the Rocky Mountain region.

MISS WILHELMINA HILL, of School of Education, University of Denver, has been active in developing a Latin-American demonstration center. She is a member of the education committee which is developing Latin-American studies for the state of Colorado and which works with the high-school international-relation clubs in Colorado. The repository for materials for Latin-American studies which is maintained by Miss Hill is considered the best in the region, and persons throughout Colorado are allowed to use it free of charge.

THROWING new light on the purchase of Alaska, James A. James, dean emeritus of the Northwestern University School, declared that Seward's motive was his belief in the economic and commercial importance of Alaska. In his book, *The First Scientific Exploration of Russian America and the Purchase of Alaska*, just published by Northwestern University, Mr. James stated that Seward had been well informed of the territory's natural advantages by reports of explorations made by Major Robert Kennicott and Lieutenant Henry M. Bannaister. The core of Mr. James' book is formed by the journals of these men.

OPPORTUNITIES for learning Oriental languages under the expanded and intensified program of the University of California are described in a pamphlet just published by the University Press. Japanese, Chinese, Panjabi, and Mongolian are taught so that at the end of a year, a student with average linguistic abilities should be able to read modern books and have the basis for the use of the language in conversation. Training in Slavic languages, including Russian, Polish, and Serbo-Croatian is also offered.

A HIGH-SCHOOL diploma or its equivalent will be required by Harvard University for entrance into next year's freshman class. Freshmen will be admitted next June for summer training under the accelerated program, but the number to be admitted will be dependent on the facilities available after any demands which the Army and Navy may make for special-training uses. In view of the vastly changed picture for the colleges resulting from the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old draft, and the difficulties of administration in an uncertain and constantly altering situation, Dean Paul H. Buck stated that the regular national

scholarship program would be suspended. A substantial amount of scholarship money, however, will be available as usual for deserving students who are eligible to enroll regularly in the College under the regulations of Selective Service.

For the first time since 1924 the health-film resources of the United States have been comprehensively surveyed, and the results have just been published in a pamphlet entitled *Health Films*. It contains a descriptive list of 219 selected motion pictures, arranged under 38 subject classifications. It is published by the American Film Center, a nonprofit educational organization, supported by a grant of the Rockefeller Foundation. The pamphlet is available at 25 cents a copy (lower rates for large quantities) from Section on Health and Medical Films, American Film Center, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.

Antioch College has four major research projects which have contributed immensely to the educational work and the cultural stimulation on the campus. The Samuel S. Fels Research Institute staff is engaged in an important long-time study of child development. The Charles F. Kettering Foundation for the study of chlorophyll and photosynthesis—with a staff of seven men—is partly engaged in war research at the present. The Antioch Foundry, at which 150 men are now engaged in nonferrous metal research, is under war contract; its product is used on 90 per cent of the fighter aircraft. The Antioch Industrial Research Institute staff is working on temperature-control research, and is also under war contract; its product is specified for tanks and planes.

Figures drawn from 667 of the nation's higher educational institutions, including Ohio State University, disclose 9.5 fewer full-time students this year than last, but a decrease of only 1.7 per cent in freshman classes, Mr. Walters, president of the University of Cincinnati, reported recently in his twenty-fourth annual attendance survey. Mr. Walters' figures showed a full-time registration of 746,922 students and a grand total, including part-time attendance, of 1,075,849 students, or 13.9 per cent under last year. Ohio State was fourth in full-time registration with 11,152, with the University of California first, Minnesota second, and Illinois third.

According to Mr. Leetch, supervisor of the personnel and placement service, men and women who have been taught under the war-training program of the Pennsylvania State College have gone ahead rapidly in industry. Less than 5 per cent of over 17,000 persons who completed their training by last August are unemployed at the present time. He has just completed a survey of 2,365 trainees in central Pennsylvania. Only 84 of the 1,910 who replied were unemployed, largely because they were either unsuited to industrial employment or did not want industrial jobs. A total of 808 had been promoted, assigned to new or different work, or had qualified for increased

pay. Three hundred and thirty-three reported more than one job promotion or a promotion as well as a pay increase.

THE annual report of Wayne University for the academic year 1941–42 is largely a description of a university in wartime. During the past year Wayne enrolled 10,300 full-time and part-time students in 23 major curriculums which have been described as directly important to the war effort. In addition to basic instruction the University last year offered 516 courses on both a credit and noncredit basis, mainly for adults, to a total of 13,448 individuals in the last year and a half. In adapting the University program to war service, the normal administrative machinery has been used, in addition to the formation of a University War Board to co-ordinate the many wartime activities, to appraise and interpret the effectiveness of the war work of the University, and to advise all of the groups on the campus of the war activities of other colleges and universities.

THE Board of Trustees of Pennsylvania State College has accepted two new loan funds for students. One is from the estate of the late Thomas B. Moreland in the sum of $6,750; it will be invested by the College trustees and the income derived will be loaned to students whose residence is in Allegheny County. The other is the establishment of the Class of 1943 Memorial Fund, according to provisions suggested by a committee of alumni from the class. Money from this fund will be loaned to students under the supervision of a faculty committee during the next ten years. At the ten-year reunion of the class it will be converted into a permanent memorial gift to the College.

THE annual report of the treasurer of Harvard College for the year ended June 30, 1942, shows a total income from all operating departments of the University of $14,141,344 and total expenses of $13,982,105, resulting in a surplus from operations for the year of $159,239. A decline of $314,000 in tuition revenues, which represent 25 per cent of Harvard income, was overcome by a number of factors: a 10–per cent reduction in the budget of Harvard College; a thorough reorganization of operating expenses in the Law School, which returned a deficit of less than $70,000 although tuition income declined over $200,000; an increase in income on endowment due to accretions to the endowment fund in the preceding year; and a decrease in staff and professional salaries, due to the departures of many to join the armed services or to take part in other war work for the Government. Despite the decline in enrollment and tuition income, the outlay for scholarships and other student aids was $44,000 larger than the year before.

TWENTY Marines arrived at the University of Wisconsin early in December to train as glider pilots. The course includes two months of primary and two months of secondary ground-school and flight training.

The University handles the ground-school course, which includes a small amount of drill, instruction in mathematics and physics, and airplane identification.

When this group completes the elementary ground-school course and advances to the secondary course, twenty more will arrive to enroll in the first course. Thereafter forty will be taking the training continuously, a new group of twenty men arriving every eight weeks.

Sixty Navy men and ten Army men are already taking the same course. This civilian-pilot training program, under the University Extension Division, is directed by the Civil Aeronautics Administration. In the past two years more than six hundred men have been trained in this course.

UNIVERSITIES in England are mobilized for the war. Students in engineering chemistry, and radio are known as "reserved subjects," and are exempted from conscription for two and one-quarter years, while they learn what in peacetime would require four years. Such students are carefully selected, and at any sign that their learning may not be of practical value to the war effort, their deferment is withdrawn and they become privates in the armed forces. While at the university, they must render some national service beyond their studies, as for example, part-time service with the Home Guard, the National Fire Service, the Auxiliary Ambulance Corps. On completion of their studies they are allocated for duty according to the requirements of the State: They may be assigned as technical officers to a fighting service or delegated to industrial activity or research.

In addition to such students many hundreds are sent to universities as "state bursers" to learn as quickly as possible some specific duties, as the production, erection, operation, and maintenance of Radio Location.

Although the practical value of the liberal-arts studies is limited during the actual period of war, the government believes that they enhance powers of leadership. Certain young men, therefore, who can prove that they have already achieved an above-the-average standard of education, are allowed a one-year course, undergoing at the same time some military training in the University Naval Division, the Senior Training Corps, or the University Air Squadron.

THE results of a conference on "College Women and the War" held recently at Northwestern University, based on recommendations of military and industrial leaders, will offer training to women students which will fit them for an effective contribution to the war effort through a program of study to commence in January. At this conference representatives of industry and officers of the WAACS and the WAVES outlined fields in which there is an urgent need of college-trained women.

Nearly 150 individual courses designed to train women for war service, industry, and community service will be offered in the new curriculum. The course will provide women with sufficient training to qualify them for many semitechnical positions.

The training programs cover a period of a year to a year and a half. For women who wish to enter either of the two military fields, programs are offered in meteorology, photography, and map-making. Special training will also be provided for women preparing for civilian government service as accountants or general-office workers. Two fields of study will be offered for women preparing for industry. One group of courses will equip women as office managers, personnel managers, and production supervisors. The second group includes technical assistants in chemical, electrical, and mechanical engineering, laboratory research aides and X-ray technicians. Courses will also be available for nontechnical positions in industry as well as in the technical fields.

THE director of the Cooper Union in his report for the year ending June 30, 1942, sees increasing difficulty for private institutions trying to help their students solve financial problems under the present accelerated programs. Part-time employment during the academic year and summer employment are almost precluded. Although Federal funds have been allocated to the United States Office of Education for student loans for tuition fees, direct aid through the National Youth Administration is being drastically curtailed.

He foresees the assignment by the Government through the United States Office of Education of a specific training task to each college in terms of its capacity, equipment, and personnel. The private colleges themselves, apparently forgetting their traditional fear of Federal influence in higher education, are making a concerted effort to become obligated to the Federal authorities by petitioning for grants-in-aid. The manner in which such colleges solve their problems now will significantly affect their postwar adjustments, when the yield from corporate and real-estate investments and endowments from extremely wealthy men will be less.

If the postwar reconstruction makes the demand it now promises for scientifically trained personnel, colleges and technical schools will have to continue year-round service. Private colleges must therefore look forward to adopting the "quarter-off" system which prevails in state universities now on a four-term basis.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY recently announced that its requirements for admission to the College and for advanced academic standing would be adjusted to include full consideration of the educational record and achievements of members of the armed forces, either enrolled in the "off-duty" program of the Army Institute or trained in the many specialist courses of the Army and Navy.

The Army Institute with headquarters at Madison, Wisconsin, recently made its first announcement of the program which provides self-teaching or "correspondence" courses in a wide variety of subjects, worked out by competent educators, as well as selected extension courses given by eighty approved colleges and universities. Developed in close co-

operation with the Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel of the Navy, it opens an integrated opportunity for education to men and women in uniform in both services. The value of much of this work as preparation for later college study is obvious. The Army Institute has thorough plans for the setting up of tests and examinations and the maintenance of individual records which will assist or supplement the college's own tests of the ability of applicants to benefit from later college training. These plans should go far to eliminate the unsatisfactory situation which arose from the granting of blanket credits for Army and Navy service during the last war.

WARTIME is influencing both the vocational and the campus life of the student at Antioch College. Under the quarter system he alternates twelve weeks of study with twelve weeks of off-campus employment. Students are doing vital engineering work with such defense industries as Wright-Aero, Curtiss-Wright, Bell Aircraft, Thompson Products, Glenn Martin, Allison Division of General Motors, and Jones-Lamson Machine Tool. They are employed by the Board of Economic Warfare, the Office of Price Administration, various state governments, the United States Department of Labor, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the National Labor Relations Board, the Public Administration services, *PM*, the National Planning Association, the Citizens' Union, the American Red Cross Inquiry Service. Many new opportunities for women are opening in chemical research and industry.

The impact of these students, bringing back their experiences in the field, is stimulating, and the Antioch campus is co-operating in many wartime activities. The Antioch War Council, composed of faculty members and students, has collected donors for the county blood bank, sold war bonds and stamps, sponsored lectures and a regular radio program. The "Camp Follower's Committee" promotes contact among all Antiochians in the armed services. The Committee of Correspondence cooperates with other colleges to mobilize ideas and action for progressive postwar reconstruction. Social activities have been curtailed to save money for war contributions and to save time for farm work and courses in mechanics, first aid, and lathe and electric tools.

THE University of New Hampshire is participating in the three-point program of the Army Institute which enables students to accumulate college credits while in military service. In the first place, the Army Institute will provide means for the University to evaluate some of the technical-training program of the military services in terms of its own courses, giving credit accordingly. Second, arrangements have been made for correspondence work of college grade at reduced prices. A branch of the Army Institute has been established in Hawaii to facilitate such study for those in service in the Pacific. Third, a few men in service may be able to arrange to study in foreign universities; the Army Institute will facilitate transfer of credit for such study.

·Editorial·Comments·

Collegiate War Problems

THE JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION aspires to do its share in the prosecution of the War effort expended by institutions of high education. From time to time articles telling of some institution's effort in co-operation with the War program or interpreting social stringencies due to War problems have appeared in the JOURNAL. The contents of this issue shows a predominance of such topics.

The first article in this issue tells how the extension division of one state university met the Government's needs by training high-school graduates for work in defense industries during the summer before Pearl Harbor. In a later article a chemistry professor looks at the postwar problems of collegiate education. "The Reporter" is devoted to notes telling of the ways in which colleges and universities are striving to meet the burning demands of the time. Different types of co-operation in the War program, courses preparing students for essential civilian jobs, plans for educating students to co-operate and communicate with peoples speaking other languages than English and holding other social ideas and habits than those to which the students are accustomed—all are discussed.

The JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION wishes to offer itself as a clearinghouse of news and discussion on these topics of immediate interest and future importance. In this issue we have used publicity sheets and alumni magazines to gather the news given in "The Reporter." Unfortunately we were limited—we could tell of the courses and plans only of those institutions from which we had received publicity. We should like to include news about many other institutions in this department. If readers of the JOURNAL will send us mimeographed materials announcing plans, describing courses, urging student co-operation, and the like, we shall gladly summarize them in this news section.

We are anxious to receive articles bearing on these pertinent problems. We shall not discard our interest in other types of academic problems, but we are looking for timely articles which will stimulate discussion and direct action.

Readers will be glad to know how other institutions are meeting the problems which perplex them. We plan to make a "quick survey" similar to those so successfully prosecuted by W. W. Charters while Editor of the JOURNAL. We shall make the questions as brief and as pointed as possible. We shall endeavor to summarize the findings in the March issue of the JOURNAL. We solicit the co-operation of many colleges and universities in our effort to keep abreast with the news of the time.

J. H. M.

··Reviews··

To be Mined and Assayed

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND THE LIBRARY, *by Arnold Miles and Lowell Martin.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. xiii+313 pp. $3.00.

Arnold Miles was asked in 1933 by the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago to write this book in order to point out some significant applications and relationships between the public library and certain phases of municipal government. His study complements Carleton B. Joeckel's investigations which resulted in his book published in 1935, *The Government of the American Public Library.*

Mr. Miles was at the time connected with the Public Administration Service; when this book was published he was with the American Municipal Association; just now he is with the Office of Emergency Management in Washington. His experience and connections enabled him to analyze the problems of public-library administration in the light of modern public-administration practice.

Mr. Miles' book is not easy reading. He so packs his paragraphs with professional phrases and precise meanings that the lay librarian (who also has his jargon of technical terminologies) may have difficulty in digging out the interpretations.

This handicap must have been realized by the Library School for Lowell Martin, of the Chicago Public Library, was called in to elucidate the professional terms and make the pregnant sentences more understandable. In this he is only partially successful; the meaty statements are so fraught with meaning that they require a second or third reading to be fully comprehended. The alert reader, however, is repaid for this constant and concentrated attention; the stuff is there if it can be mined and assayed.

For the educator, interest will center in Chapter 4, subtitled "The Public Library and Formal Education," in which is considered the controversial subject of the public library and the public school. Here the authors argue for sincere co-operation in place of competition. They present three possibilities: consolidation, exclusion, or joint provision; and they seem to favor the last method of providing books for children, but state it can only be successful if the will is there for co-operation. It is possible for the activities of the library and the school to be consolidated in providing children's reading. Certainly at present their activities lack co-ordination, and may be in competition. Librarians feel that the school men tend to neglect library needs and hence they are skeptical of effective service to all through the schools. But a slow broadening of the educational outlook by school officials is evident, and this change in attitude is desirable and necessary. Exclusive service by either the public library or the public-school library is discussed pro and con in an effort to discover which is the most efficient and effective provision. Since neither can give complete and satisfactory service, the authors conclude on joint provision of children's reading.

Of general interest to the educational executive is the introductory discussion in which the point is made "that the librarian is a public administrator. . . . In accomplishing his purpose the librarian performs administrative operations essentially similar to those of other public agencies." This idea is developed further in Chapter 5, where in discussing library finance direct comparisons are made with health and recreation functions and activities.

State library functions and agencies are discussed in Chapter 2, especially as

they may be co-ordinated with the State Department of Education.

Another admirable chapter treats skillfully the current tax situation. This chapter (6) shows that adjustments are necessary because of the decline in local revenues through the decrease in real-estate values and through the reduction in the real-property tax. This results in a need for grants-in-aid which can also be used to stimulate new enterprises, equalize service to need, and promote standards. Such state and federal grants and tax problems are the concern of educators as well as librarians.

Other chapters are devoted to topics of greater interest to the librarian, such as Local Government and Library Extension (Chap. 3), Library Measurement (Chap. 8), and The Board Form of Library Organization (Chap. 7). This discussion of the library board traces the history of such separate boards in municipal affairs and presents the main arguments for and against retaining them. The school board and the library board remain as the last vestiges of this form of protection against political interference.

This is a fundamental contribution to the topics discussed. Educators and librarians may profitably study its conclusions.

F. K. W. Drury,
Nashville Public Library

A Multitude of Topics

Essays on Catholic Education in the United States, *edited by Roy J. Deferrari.* Washington, D. C.: Catholic University of America Press, 1942. ix+556 pages. $4.50.

These essays by Catholic writers supplement lectures which were given in 1939 by the Catholic University of America and were subsequently published as *Vital Problems of Catholic Education in the United States.* Taken together, the two volumes present an over-all view of Catholic education in this country. The present series of papers covers Catholic educational philosophy; the various levels of schooling, from elementary to higher institutions; six aspects of professional education—theology, teacher training, law, medicine, social work, and library science; and a number of special areas and problems—teaching religion, philosophy, literature, fine arts, drama, psychology, the Negro, the Indian, the blind and the deaf—as related to Catholic education.

Covering a multitude of matters and written by more than two dozen contributors, the book naturally has some of the common shortcomings of symposia—some overlapping, unevenness of quality, disparity in respect to documentation—but, on the whole, the editor has succeeded in reducing these to a minimum, and has brought together a survey of fact and opinion that will be useful to those who want to know what is taking place in the Catholic educational world. To non-Catholic students of education, especially those concerned with major questions of educational policy, John K. Ryan's "Philosophy and Catholic Education," and the ninety-odd pages devoted to "fundamental principles," with emphasis on the interrelation of ecclesiastical control of education and the demands of the secular state, will doubtless prove most interesting. The challenges which Catholic education has experienced, due to the Protestant revolt, the rise of naturalistic, pragmatic tendencies in modern thought, and the establishment of dominion over education by various forms of secular totalitarianism, are stated and examined in the light of Catholic principles.

While the volume is useful as a statement of Catholic opinion, there are unscientific, unsupported statements in respect to education in the United States which will scarcely carry conviction with critical readers. The generalizations concerning the "treason and infidelity of our teachers in the destruction of patriotism" are presented in dogmatic fashion; the statements linking Russian and American teachers in an "attempt to wipe out our American democracy" are made without citing the evidence (pages 42–43). These and the likewise unsupported opinions

that "millions upon millions" of our young know no more of God than Russian atheists (page 45); that peace societies are responsible for a decline of patriotism (page 41); that a "national crime" has been committed by the social sciences in not understanding "the secret of the grandeur of this republic" (page 51); that "the Catholic school is best prepared to develop" patriotism in its best sense (page 46); and others of similar character will hardly persuade independent minds, or raise their estimate of the book.

THOMAS WOODY
University of Pennsylvania

Workmanlike Research

ACTUAL AND POTENTIAL USE OF LABORATORY SCHOOLS, *by E. I. F. Williams.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. x+269 pp. $2.65.

The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools by E. I. F. Williams is a workmanlike job of research on some of the problems connected with the operation of laboratory schools. "The data for the study were secured principally from a questionnaire received from 131 of the 160 members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges in 1933–34 and a similar questionnaire submitted in 1937–38 to which 137 responded. The replies have been interpreted in terms of the opinions of competent workers in the field of teacher education."

On the basis of these data the investigation offers recommendations concerning such matters as the time a student should work in the laboratory school, allocation of specialized training functions to different institutions within a state, closer integration of theory courses and laboratory-school experience, demonstration work by college instructors, nature of student body, tuition charges, et cetera in laboratory schools. The data are adequate, the analysis competently done and the conclusions justified.

The study is in short an adequate presentation of existing practice. Its weakness lies in that it does not raise some of the more important issues which in the final analysis determine the quality of the laboratory experience of the student teacher. To mention only two things: nothing is said either in the study or in the suggestions for future studies about the qualifications, the salary, or the status of the laboratory-school teachers; also, it is blandly assumed that college instructors should periodically leave their college halls and go into the laboratory school to "demonstrate" the teaching of a subject.

So long as those who teach children in laboratory schools and guide the work of the student teachers there, continue to be differentiated in salary and academic status from those who lecture to the student teachers in the college, the laboratory schools will continue to play less of a part in the teacher's development than they should play; the relegation of the laboratory teaching function to less competent individuals is in this writer's opinion the chief obstacle in the improvement of these schools. This problem the author of the study does not even mention.

To mention only one other shortcoming: the conception of classroom teaching that condones the occasional "demonstration" by an outsider of some method, as a desirable laboratory-school procedure, would seem to underline the author's real limitations as a student of laboratory-school procedures.

There is much that is valuable in the study. The author probably limited himself deliberately to the aspects which could be more objectively studied. One cannot help but wish, however, that someone would have the courage and the vision to tackle some of the more important problems of laboratory-school procedure.

RUDOLPH D. LINDQUIST
Cranbrook School

"LEARNING AND LIVING": Proceedings of an Anniversary Celebration in Honor of Alexander Meiklejohn, *edited by Walker H. Hill.* Chicago: Published by the editor (5835 Kim-

bark Avenue), 1942. xiv+124 pp. (planographed).

In this small volume, alumni of the Experimental College, University of Wisconsin, and associates and students of Alexander Meiklejohn while at Brown, Amherst, Wisconsin, and San Francisco School for Social Studies share with the general reader the interesting symposium, papers, and discussions which occurred during the reunion by which they celebrated Mr. Meiklejohn's seventieth year. Persons interested in higher education today should read this book—not only is collegiate education discussed by persons intimately concerned with it, but the educational success of the Experimental College is evaluated by the enthusiasm of its students and by statistics regarding the social and economic status of the students ten years later.

Slavonic Studies in America

MAURICE W. ROSENBAUM

[*Continued from page 14*]

loving American public, and it must be admitted that, unfortunately, the collegiate and university public of America is not very different in this respect from the baseball crowd.

Under optimum conditions it would be pleasant to view the establishment of Slavonic studies, and especially Russian as their chief representative, on a par with other modern foreign languages. Courses would then be included in the secondary schools, doubtless with no less success than courses so taken today in French, German, or Spanish (and the meager success of these studies in the American high schools is proverbial). The undergraduate faculty would thus carry Russian 1, 2, 3, and 4 as it now carries such numerical offerings in German or French; as, indeed, the University of California now carries in Russian, Polish, and Bohemian. The graduate faculties would offer advanced work in Slavonic language and literature leading to the higher degrees.

If I were to give way to summary judgment, I should say that the probability of this being realized in the near future depends in large measure on the armies of the U.S.S.R., thus reversing the poet's dictum that "the pen is mightier than the sword"—but then, the poet came before the Messerschmitt!

[Vol. XIV, No. 1]

Case-Study Techniques

ESTHER ALLEN GAW

[*Continued from page 40*]

can be of great value to an adviser. Unfortunately many items concerning a student, as reported by herself or others, are thrown away. The adviser in a high school or college should endeavor to divert all such little bits of autobiography and biography to her own files, by official or personal request. But the adviser must learn from Korzybski as well as from others to distinguish the concrete bits of specific information from the emotionally charged inferential words. When factual material and inferences are read in such a manner, simple autobiographical and biographical reports become illuminating to the adviser in understanding individual students at a certain time.